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ABSTRACT

This publication contains a brief description of secondary education in Spain. It constitutes one part of a series entitled "Guide to Secondary Education in Europe," developed as part of a Council of Europe project. Chapter 1 presents a general overview of the Spanish education system, with a focus on secondary education. Chapter 2 describes education policy, funding, curricular organization, the role of the school as an organization and as a community, evaluation and assessment, school staff, and the influences of European innovations on education. The third chapter addresses issues of effectiveness and performance: student flows for 1970-90, dropout and repetition rates, admission to higher education, and employment opportunities for high school graduates. The greatest challenge that the Spanish education system faces is that of reform implementation. Appendices contain statistical data and a list of school legislation. Contains 13 tables, four figures, and 36 references.) (LMI)

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Secondary education in Spain

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Secondary education in Spain

by Alejandro Tiana Ferrer, Francisco Javier Murillo Torrecilla and Mercedes Lucio-Villegas de la Cuedra

Guide to secondary education in Europe
Editor Denis Kallen

A secondary education for Europe
Council for Cultural Co-operation

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The **Council of Europe** was founded in 1949 to achieve greater unity between European parliamentary democracies. It is the oldest of the European political institutions and has thirty-nine member states,[1] including the fifteen members of the European Union. It is the widest intergovernmental and interparliamentary grouping in Europe, and has its headquarters in the French city of Strasbourg.

Only questions related to national defence are excluded from the Council of Europe's work, and the Organisation has activities in the following areas: democracy, human rights and fundamental freedoms; media and communication; social and economic affairs; education, culture, heritage and sport; youth, health, environment and regional planning; local democracy; and legal co-operation.

The **European Cultural Convention** was opened for signature in 1954. This international treaty is open to European countries that are not members of the Council of Europe, and it enables them to take part in the Organisation's programmes on education, culture, sport and youth. So far, forty-four states have acceded to the European Cultural Convention; the Council of Europe's full member states plus Belarus, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, the Holy See and Monaco.

The **Council for Cultural Co-operation** (the CDCC) is responsible for the Council of Europe's work on education and culture. Four specialised committees – the Education Committee, the Standing Conference on University Problems, the Culture Committee and the Cultural Heritage Committee – help the CDCC to carry out its tasks under the European Cultural Convention. There is also a close working relationship between the CDCC and the regular conferences of specialised European ministers responsible for education, culture and cultural heritage.

The CDCC's programmes are an integral part of the Council of Europe's work, and, like the programmes in other sectors, they contribute to the Organisation's three overarching policy objectives for the 1990s:

– the protection, reinforcement and promotion of human rights and fundamental freedoms and pluralist democracy;

– the promotion of an awareness of European identity;

1. Albania, Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, San Marino, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, "the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia", Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom.

– the search for common responses to the great challenges facing European society.

The CDCC's education programme covers school, higher and adult education, as well as educational research. At present, there are projects on: education for democratic values; history; modern languages; school links and exchanges; the reform of secondary education; access to higher eduction; the reform of legislation on higher education in central and eastern Europe; academic mobility; and educational documentation and research.

In 1991, the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe launched a project entitled "A secondary education for Europe". The aims of the project are to:

– give young people the knowledge, skills and attitudes they will need to meet the major challenges of European society;

– prepare young people for higher education, and for mobility, work and daily life in a multilingual and multicultural, democratic Europe;

– make young people aware of their common cultural heritage and their shared responsibilities as Europeans.

This project has two elements: the first devoted to reflections and consultations among the member states on the overall policies and strategies, and the second on the European dimension in the school curriculum.

The series entitled "Guide to secondary education in Europe" sets out to present in a synthetic form – country by country – the major elements of secondary education structures and policies that exist in CDCC member states.

Each guide has been written, on the basis of a common analysis, by experts designated by the authorities in each country concerned.

Denis Kallen has undertaken the difficult task of the general co-ordination of this series, guaranteeing its coherence and thus allowing comparisons to be made among countries.

Given that this is a field in which developments sometimes take place very quickly and are of an almost permanent nature, it is possible that, despite the considerable efforts made to take into account the latest reforms in the pipeline, certain changes may have taken place since the manuscript was originally received.

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Contents

Page

I. General description 9

1. An overview of the Spanish education system 9
2. Secondary education 13

II. Specific aspects 17

1. Education policy 17
2. Funding 25
3. School and society 27
4. Curricular organisation of secondary education 32
5. School as an organisation and as a community 51
6. Evaluation and assessment 52
7. School staff 56
8. The European dimension 61

III. Effectiveness and performance in secondary education 63

1. Student flows (1970-90) 63
2. Changes in the number of pupils holding a secondary education certificate 64
3. Drop-out and repetition rates 65
4. Admission to higher education 69
5. Job situation for qualified school-leavers 71

IV. Challenges, problems and perspectives 73

Appendix I: Statistics 75

Appendix II: Legislative index 83

Appendix III: Bibliography 91

I. General description

1. An overview of the Spanish education system

Legislative principles

The Spanish education system is currently undergoing a process of sweeping reform. Until this has been fully implemented, two different educational systems will continue to exist in Spain: one which stems from the General Act on Education (LGE) of 1970, and the other which is regulated by the Organic Act 1/1990 on the General Arrangement of the Education System (LOGSE).

Between 1970 and 1990, there were other legislative provisions developed that greatly affected education. The most important of these is the Spanish Constitution of 1978, which lays down the basic guidelines that legislation on education should follow. The Constitution recognises the right to education as one of a series of fundamental rights that should be guaranteed by public authority, as well as other basic rights related to education. Similarly, the Constitution regulates the process of administrative decentralisation, with the object of adapting education to the new composition of Autonomous Regions within Spain. Spain is a nation which, according to the Constitution, comprises various nationalities and regions, each with the right to autonomy.

From 1978 to the present day, seven Autonomous Regions (Andalusia, the Canary Islands, Catalonia, Galicia, the Basque Country, Valencia and Navarre) have already exercised such a right, each assuming independent responsibility in educational matters. The ten remaining Autonomous Regions (Aragon, Asturias, the Balearic Islands, Cantabria, Castile-La Mancha, Castile-León, Extremadura, La Rioja, Madrid and Murcia) will be exercising similar rights over the coming years.

Later on, to develop the principles and rights established in the Constitution, two basic laws for the education system were promulgated: the Organic Act 11/83 on University Reform (LRU) and the Organic Act 8/1985 on the Right to Education (LODE). The LRU set in motion the necessary reform of university education to adapt it to a social, political and legal context which was drastically different from that which existed in 1970. The LODE, for its part,

set out the broad aims of education, described the fundamental rights of the members of the school community, and established the mechanisms to ensure that these rights were respected.

The Organic Act 1/90 on the General Arrangement of the Education System (LOGSE) proposed an overall reform of the system. To set this under way, a schedule has been set for its gradual implementation, which is to be completed by the year 2000. As a result, throughout this guide it will be necessary to refer to both education systems: the system implemented in 1970 with the LGE and the recent education system of the LOGSE.

Socio-economic and political factors. Problems pertaining to the social, political and educational aspects of the system preceding the LOGSE

The need to reform legislation regarding the Spanish education system arose as the result of a combination of various legal, social and political aspects in conjunction with other, more strictly educational, factors. From a legal standpoint, it required a constitutional mandate whereby a new law on education could be brought into force that would match, both in content and in form, the new legal, political and ideological framework of the state, once the Spanish Constitution of 1978 had been adopted.

On the other hand, the economic and social changes that took place in Spain, subsequent to the promulgation of the LGE in 1970, led to a huge and continued increase in demand for education. In the first place, school terms were extended. As a result of social developments, schooling began at an ever younger age and the length of compulsory schooling was increased. Second, contemporary society demands a greater number of new alternatives, particularly as regards educational content and methodology.

Together with these factors, Spain's integration process within the European Union has broadened future horizons for Spanish society and presented the Spanish with challenges of major importance in the world of education. On the one hand, there is clearly a need to increase the country's general level of competitiveness, a prerequisite of which is an improvement in the quality of the education system. On the other hand, the right that citizens have both to settling down and to mobility within the context of the Single European Market emphasises the need for international equivalence and adaptation, both in training and in professional qualification levels.

From a strictly educational point of view, system reforms, as established by the LGE, came about as the result of a need to rectify defects and inadequacies in the operation of the system. The system which was proving ill-suited to the new socio-economic situation that was very different from that which

had existed at the beginning of the 1970s. The principal problems being confronted were: *a*. the absence of specific legislation and regulations on infant education, which emphasised child care over and above education; *b*. an overload, in terms of contents, in the upper grade of EGB (Basic General Education) (11-13), leading to a decline in student motivation, to an excessive number of pupils repeating courses, and to a high proportion of pupils leaving primary school without the *Graduado Escolar* qualification (Certificate of Basic Education); *c*. the existence of two types of qualification at the end of EGB – Certificate of Basic Education and Certificate of School Attendance (EGB Diploma) – which divided the education system into two parallel ways as of this point – *Bachillerato* (Baccalaureate) and vocational training – and which imposed a handicap as regards effectively honouring the principle of equal opportunities; *d*. the excessively academic nature of *Bachillerato*; *e*. the deviation of the *Curso de Orientación Universitaria* (University Guidance Course) from its original aims; *f*. the insufficient social valorisation attached to vocational training; *g*. the inefficacy of vocational training at the initial level (high failure rates and, in all too many cases, incoherent with the needs of the productive world); and, *h*. the disjuncture between the artistic studies and the main core of the education system.

Furthermore, under the LGE system, the school leaving age (14) for compulsory education was out of step with the age at which the labour market could be entered (16), an anomaly that was corrected when the LOGSE extended compulsory schooling up to the age of 16. By the early 1980s, schooling for all pupils between the ages of 6 and 13 had been attained and, in recent years, schooling of all children aged 5, a very high percentage of those aged 4 (88%), 14 (92%) and 15 (78%) has been achieved. Such progress in schooling, together with the all too well-known effects resulting from the decrease in birth rates, has allowed for a realistic attitude to be adopted as regards extending compulsory schooling to the age of 16.

It seemed timely to focus on measures aimed at improving the quality of the system whilst, at the same time, increasing resource availability provided for the same purpose. Some of the more outstanding aspects of all measures introduced with the aim of improving the system include the following: renewed curricula; wide extension of teacher training programmes, bringing them closer to the reality of the schools; reinforcing educational guidance – in particular at the secondary level; promoting educational research together with the drawing up of mechanisms aimed at assessing the education system; renewing the role of school inspectors; and a new approach to, and development of, distance education.

Another important aspect, one worth emphasising, is the almost unanimous consensus that existed among the different sectors involved in education (public administration, trade union and employers' associations, professional groups, etc.) regarding that which was considered essential. This was evident particularly with respect to the need for reform and for a diagnosis of the problems inherent in the Spanish education system towards the end of the 1980s.

Awareness of these problems initiated a process of global reform of non-university education. In June 1987, the Educational Reform Project: A Proposal for Debate, together with a specific document for vocational training, published in February 1988, was submitted for debate, throughout the term of 1987-88, to all sectors of the educational community. The proposal for reform subscribed to the general aims of encouraging equal opportunity schemes and emphasising the role of education as a mechanism favouring a reduction in levels of inequality. It is interesting to note that, aside from the different positions put forward in the discussion, a general agreement prevailed on the need for reform.

Suggestions from the various groups and social sectors involved in education having been collected and analysed (results would later be published and disseminated by the Ministry of Education and Science) and an agreement having been reached with the Departments of Education of each Autonomous Region, the ministry's final proposal was published in the *White Paper for the Reform of the Education System*. After parliamentary discussion of the initial bill, the new LOGSE Act was passed by a large majority both at Congress and at Senate level and, eventually, promulgated in 1990.

Structure of the education system

The system set up in the 1970s with the General Act on Education was divided into four educational levels: pre-school education, *Educación General Básica* or EGB (Basic General Education), *Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente* or BUP (General Unified Baccalaureate) and *Curso de Orientación Universitaria* or COU (University Guidance Course), and university education. Vocational Training (VT), despite not being considered an "educational level" in the strict sense (VT involves training specifically vocational by nature), also constituted a substantial component of the system and, together with BUP, formed a part of the so-called *Enseñanzas Medias*. Furthermore, as part of the education system, the LGE included adult education, specialised education and education for special needs.

In 1990, the LOGSE divided the education system into a general education system and a special education system. The former including infant, primary

school, secondary school (comprising ESO [Compulsory Secondary Education], *Bachillerato* and intermediate-level vocational training), vocational training at advanced level and university education. The special education system encompasses arts and languages. These systems would also include adult education, education for special needs and those types of education whose primary objective is compensating for inequalities.

Figure 1 overleaf shows educational levels under the LGE and under the LOGSE.

2. Secondary education

A brief history of secondary education

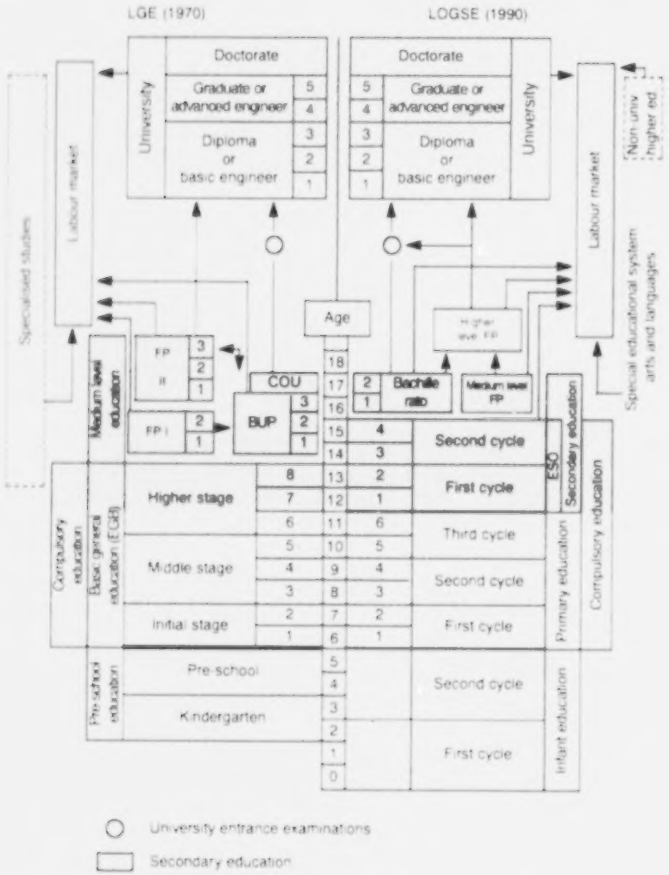
Since the creation of the Spanish education system, at the start of the nineteenth century, there have been four ideological models applied in defining education policies in Spain: liberal, Republican, Francoist and democratic. The models have developed in relation to the various political regimes that have governed Spain.

The linchpin of the "liberal" model was the Moyano Act of 1857, which regulated secondary education that included general studies (lasting six years) and applied vocational studies; at the end of this period the title of "Bachelor of Arts" (general certificate of education) was obtained or that of *certificado* (certificate) of expertise in a profession. Throughout this period, which covered the nineteenth century and part of the twentieth, the role of secondary education was simply to prepare the student for university studies. It was limited to the higher social classes and was distinctly two-tier in nature.

The Second Republic (1931-39) aimed to make profound changes in the education system. Its short duration, however, prevented the implementation of many of the innovative projects planned. Secondary education offered the *Plan de estudios de Bachillerato* (secondary studies plan) of 1934, according to which this level would take the form of seven courses split into two cycles.

After the Spanish civil war (1936-39), the new political order left its ideological mark on the education system. In the early stages of General Franco's regime, education underwent a considerable degree of involution, as shown by the Education Act of 1938 which was laden with nationalistic/Catholic ideology. Throughout this period, both parallel subsystems established under the Moyano Act (1857) continued to exist. One of them, aimed at the working classes, comprised primary education (final) for pupils aged between 7 and 13. The other, aimed at the élite, was composed of primary education

Figure 1: Structure of the education system



(preparatory in nature for children from 7 to 9) followed by a seven-year secondary education period. In 1953, a new Law on Secondary Education Planning was passed, which re-established curricula for this level, distinguishing two stages: elementary *Bachillerato* and advanced *Bachillerato*. From 1959 a period of economic development was to commence, which had, as one of its effects, an increase in demand for education at all levels. Thus, the Span-

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ish education system grew notably in the technocratic 1960s, creating a need for far-reaching changes. In 1970, the General Act on Education, which reformed the entire education system, was passed. Its ideas, though somewhat modified by the current political situation, are still in force in part. It was at about that time that the two-tier system came to an end, with the creation of a general mandatory education system for all Spaniards aged between 6 and 14, diversification commencing at upper secondary education level. Upon Franco's death, in 1975, an age of great political upheavals commenced, as a result of which major changes in education, between 1978 and 1990, came about, too.

Conceptualisation and general principles of secondary education

Under the General Act on Education, the term "secondary education" is not used to describe any specific educational level. However, if we consider the age of pupils and the guidelines set down for studies and international comparisons, secondary education, in this structure, could be deemed to comprise the second stage (or upper grades) of EGB, BUP and COU, and VT. It is, therefore, made up of two parts. What is known internationally as lower secondary is composed of the last part of a common core covering the age range 6-14. What is known as upper secondary (or intermediate education) is divided into two sections, one being academic (BUP and COU) and the other professional (VT). Therefore, it usually starts at 11 years of age and ends at 18 (Figure 1).

Bearing in mind this division, it is not easy to speak of objectives exclusive to secondary education as organised under the LGE, given that each of the three stages has its own set of objectives. While the nature of lower secondary is general, basic and common to all Spanish children, upper secondary is oriented more towards preparation for University studies or training for a career.

The Organic Act on the General Arrangement of the Education System establishes a structure which is more in line with internationally existing structures than the previous one. It defines secondary education as the third level within the system, consisting of *Educación Secundaria Obligatoria* (ESO) or compulsory secondary education, *Bachillerato*, and specific vocational training at intermediate level. There is still a lower and an upper secondary; the former, however, is longer and the latter shorter than under the previous system. Lower secondary constitutes a common core, without differentiated branches though internally consideration is given to student diversity, while upper secondary consists of two branches: one academic *(Bachillerato)* and another

professional (specific vocational training). Normal secondary starts at age 12, through to leaving age at 18 (Figure 1).

LOGSE does not establish general objectives for the whole of secondary education, but rather for each of its stages. It, thus, establishes the purpose of compulsory secondary education as being to transmit basic elements of culture to all pupils, to teach them to assume their duties and exercise their rights, as well as preparing them for a working life, or how to access either specific vocational training, at intermediate level, or *Bachillerato*. *Bachillerato* is aimed at providing pupils with both human and intellectual maturity, as well as with the necessary degree of knowledge and abilities that will allow them to perform their role in society in a responsible and competent manner, whilst enabling them to gain access both to advanced level vocational training and to university studies. The role of specific vocational training is to lead young people into their working life, contributing to the ongoing training of individuals and meeting the production system's demand for skilled labour.

Although differentiated objectives and specific principles exist for each of the stages which make up secondary education, it may, in general terms, be asserted that the purpose of secondary education, as pursued in our education system, is to complete the student's basic training and provide the necessary preparation for higher education or working life.

II. Specific aspects

1. Education policy

Spanish education policy, both at secondary education level and overall, is characterised by the decentralisation of its functions and by the participation of all those sectors involved in it. Furthermore, in the last few years, concern to improve the quality of education at this educational level has favoured the adoption of a series of concrete measures.

Distribution of responsibilities

Administration of education, as with all Spanish public administration, has undergone considerable upheavals from the promulgation of the Constitution through to the present moment, in the process of adjusting to the new decentralised political organisation of the state.

In secondary education, as at other educational levels, there are different levels of administration with specific areas of competence:

– those areas which are the preserve of the state, governed by the central government (the Ministry of Education and Science – MEC);

– regional administrations, which (in the case of the seven Autonomous Regions to which competence for educational matters has already been transferred) are referred to as departments *(Consejerías)* of education, within their respective governments. The remaining ten Autonomous Regions make up what is known as the "MEC area", where authority still lies in the hands of the Ministry of Education and Science, the latter delegating some of its functions to provincial administration departments;

– municipal or local level, which provides the framework for various town council actions in education;

– finally, there is the school level in charge of direct educational management through the school governing bodies, whilst at all times observing regulations as dictated by superior administrative levels.

In accordance with Articles 148 and 149 of the Spanish Constitution (whereby, Autonomous Regions are allowed to assume responsibilities in matters concerning the "promotion of cultural activities, research and, wherever applicable, the teaching of the regional language" and, whereby, issues not attributed to the state by the Constitution may correspond to the Autonomous Regions by virtue of their respective by-laws), a number of regions have already assumed wide executive responsibilities (management of the education system on their own territory) along with the regulation and organisation of numerous matters.

Although the transfer process currently under way will result in the transfer of a wide-ranging set of powers to the Autonomous Regions of more functions considered essential in assuring the basic unity of the education system, the state has held back on the following:

– standardisation of conditions involved in obtaining, issuing and approving valid academic and professional qualifications throughout Spain, as well as the academic and professional purposes of such qualifications;

– general rules governing the education system (specifying the length of compulsory schooling; determining levels, grades, specialties, cycles, including the number of courses and the requirements for passing from one level to another; setting the minimum educational requirements; establishing the basic areas to be defined in official school reports);

– standards and minimum requirements for schools (qualifications required by teaching staff, student/teacher ratio facilities and equipment, and number of pupils);

– rules governing basic education, guaranteeing every person's right and duty to learn Castilian Spanish;

– global planning of investment in education;

– policy governing grants and scholarships;

– the ownership and administration of state schools abroad as well as legislation governing foreign schools in Spain;

– international bilateral and multilateral co-operation in education;

– High Inspectorate of the Education System.

Educational administration in the Autonomous Regions

For their part, the Autonomous Regions, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and their respective by-laws, have assumed or may assume full competence for the regulation and administration of all aspects of education, levels and grades, in unlimited fashion, with the exception of those powers attributed exclusively to the state. At present, the seven aforementioned regions have already assumed full competence in education, after transference by the state.

In order to ensure that adequate co-operation between the central government and autonomous regional governments is maintained, two channels have been established: conferences held between regional education departments and the Minister of Education and Science, and co-operation agreements. The state's High Inspectorate also serves as a guarantee in co-ordinating central, regional and local governments.

Local administration

The Act on Precepts governing Local Administration includes, among other municipal powers, participation in programming educational activities and co-operation with education authorities in the creation, construction and maintenance of state schools; intervening in state school governing bodies and participating in ensuring that compulsory schooling is observed. Legal development of these powers is still pending.

Municipalities can also develop complementary activities in the field of education. Among other activities, they have created psycho-pedagogical and guidance services, municipal sports schools, market gardens and nature classrooms; they have organised seminars, meetings, occupational or leisure and artistic-based workshops; they have developed programmes dealing with environmental education, in-service teacher training courses and road safety education; they have supported infant education and education for special needs and given advice to parent associations; they have also set up adult education centres.

Finally, the Law on Precepts governing Local Administration provides for the possibility that the central administration and the Autonomous Regions delegate some of their powers to municipalities. The development of such tasks, however, in addition to the exercising of their own powers, is hindered by the lack of resources and budgetary difficulties experienced by municipalities.

School administration

To complete the picture on how responsibilities are distributed (at state, Autonomous Region and local administration level) there is a fourth level that remains to be described: schools. Schools have broad responsibilities as regards budget and resource management, both in terms of human and material resources. In addition to this, they are the principal managers and administrators of education as provided to pupils.

The LODE states that schools shall have the autonomy to determine optional subjects, to adapt programmes to the characteristics of the environment into which they are to be incorporated, to adopt teaching methods and to organise extracurricular activities. To carry out these functions, schools receiving public funding have single-individual governing bodies (head teacher, director of studies and secretary) and associated bodies (school council and teachers senate). The LOGSE preserves the structure of school management bodies, as set out in the LODE, adding the figure of administrator to give schools a greater degree of autonomy.

Participation mechanisms

The decentralisation of the education system not only implies sharing out responsibilities among the various administrations, it also involves promoting social participation, converting schools into authentic educational communities. Parent-student participation is promoted through associations, and through the creation of advisory bodies, with the object of achieving greater social representation.

Participation is not only conceived of as a factor in promoting democracy, but also as an element capable of guaranteeing the expression of society's demands on the education system and its concern for the qualitative improvement of education. At state education level, participatory bodies are made up of the State School Council, the General Council for Vocational Training and the Universities Council. At regional and local level, there are municipal and regional school councils. Participation at school level will be dealt with further down.

Participatory bodies at state level

- *The State School Council*

The LODE created the State School Council as a national body which was assigned the dual function of assuring the participation of those sectors involved in the overall programming of education, and in advising the gov-

ernment on the subject of bills or by-laws that might need proposing or promulgating.

The State School Council has a chairman (appointed by royal decree, at the minister's behest, from people of recognised prestige in the educational field), a deputy-chairman (elected by the council itself, from among its members), a secretary general (appointed by the minister, from the officials of the department; with voice but no vote) and eighty counsellors, representing the following categories of people: twelve teachers from the state sector and eight from the private sector; twelve parents; eight pupils; four representatives taken from among service and administrative staff; four private school proprietors; four state school representatives; four representatives of employers' associations; eight representatives from the educational administration (appointed by the Minister of Education and Science); four university representatives (appointed at the behest of the Universities' Council); twelve individuals with recognised prestige in the field of education, educational research and the most established religious and secular institutions, most dedicated to education (appointed by the Minister of Education and Science).

With the exception of those appointed by the Minister of Education and Science or by the Universities' Council, counsellors are proposed by those associations or organisations considered as the most representative, a fact generally based on numbers of affiliates or union representatives each association or organisation has.

The government consults the State School Council on problems related to general educational programming, basic procedures to be promulgated by the state (in developing Article 27 of the Constitution, which deals with the right to education) or for the general regulation of the education system and all those issues which, by virtue of their importance, are submitted to it by the Minister of Education and Science. Furthermore, the State School Council draws up and publishes an annual report on the state and situation of the education system and takes to the ministry those proposals it deems appropriate concerning the matters described above.

• *The General Council for Vocational Training*

The General Council for Vocational Training, which comes under the Ministry of Employment and Social Security, was created by decree in 1986. It is an advisory body, in which entrepreneurs, employees and representatives of the administration participate. Its purpose is to advise the government on matters related to occupational and vocational training. Its principal responsibilities are the following: *a*. to produce and submit for government approval, the National Programme of Vocational Training; *b*. to monitor the execution

of this national programme and to propose its updating whenever necessary; *c.* to inform on curricula proposals and qualifications on occupational and vocational training and the possible homologation of both; *d.* to inform on matters of vocational training, raised by the administration; *e.* to propose actions and recommendations to improve careers guidance; *f.* to assess and follow-up measures developed in vocational training.

The General Council for Vocational Training is made up of thirteen representatives of the most representative trade union organisations, who, in turn, are appointed by the competent body of the corresponding union; thirteen representatives from the employers' associations which are most representative, appointed by the competent bodies of these organisations; and thirteen representatives from public administration, appointed by the Ministers of Education and Science, and Employment and Social Security. The chair of the general council is held alternatively by the Minister of Education and Science, and the Minister of Employment and Social Security, for single-year terms. The General Council for Vocational Training also has four deputy chairmen, two of them assigned to the administration and another two to employers' and union organisations.

- *The Universities' Council*

The University Reform Act created the Universities' Council, assigning it the task of directing, co-ordinating, planning, proposing and advising in matters of higher education. Its principal functions are the ongoing improvement of the teaching staff; research; the achievement of the necessary objectives in university reform; co-ordination of universities; and planning of higher education, in accordance with those needs expressed by Spanish society.

The Minister of Education and Science presides over the Universities' Council, which is made up of university heads from those Autonomous Regions that have assumed full independent responsibility for higher education, as well as the rectors of state universities and fifteen members appointed from among people of recognised prestige or specialists in the various areas of university education and research, designated in the following manner: five by congress, five by the senate and five by the government. It also has a secretary general, appointed by the minister. The rectors of private universities are convened to meetings at which matters of their concern are analysed. Occasionally, those persons in charge of higher education within the Ministry of Education and Science, and within those Autonomous Regions of full competence, may also participate.

The Universities' Council has two commissions: one for co-ordination and one for planning, composed of those in charge of university education within

those Autonomous Regions considered of full competence, at higher education level, and those members of the council designated by the president; and the Academic Commission, composed of the rectors of state universities and members designated by the president.

Participatory bodies at local and regional level

According to the LODE, each Autonomous Region will have a school council for its territorial area. The composition and function of these councils is determined by law, by the respective assemblies of the Autonomous Regions, guaranteeing, in each case, adequate participation of the affected groups. Their organisation and operation is similar to that of the state School Council, but limited to its own area of competence. The seven aforementioned Autonomous Regions have already created their own school councils, each of which is already fully operative.

To complete the mechanism of participation, in accordance with the LODE, school councils can be constituted for different territorial areas (provincial, regional and municipal). In those Autonomous Regions with full transfer of competence, these bodies are governed by the same law which created the school councils of the Autonomous Regions. In the area of competence of the Ministry of Education and Science, municipal school councils are now operating, and were even created and operating before intermediate legal regulation had been developed. Such intermediate legal regulation is indeed still pending.

Measures for quality improvement in education

Together with the guaranteed right to an education for all, and in view of the elimination of inequalities within education, improving the quality of education is the third great aim of Spain's current education policy.

As indicated above, the education system, as defined by the LGE, showed a series of organisational and operational problems which threatened the quality of education provided. We have already highlighted some of these, such as the two-tier qualification system at the end of compulsory education, the overly academic nature of the *Bachillerato* or the lack of contact between vocational training and the labour market. At the beginning of the 1980s, there was a widespread opinion that these problems should be tackled decisively so as to achieve improvements in the results of Spain's education system.

Levels of school success were not as high, in the 1970s and early 1980s, as might have been hoped for. More than a few critical voices were raised

regarding the high failure rates in mandatory and post-mandatory schooling. For, indeed, despite the fact that the reality of what is usually deemed school failure or, even, the very definition, are both highly elusive factors, it is customary to include school failure among a system's quality indicators. In the case of Spain, there could be no denying that the failure and re-sit rates for upper grade courses in EGB, BUP and VT were quite considerable. This led the administration to consider how to respond to the pressures exerted by different groups, pressures being in the main expressed via the mass media.

These and other reasons played an important part when it came to tackling the reform of the education system in the 1980s. As a result of this concern, the LOGSE devoted a complete section of its report to the quality of teaching. The law dealt with a series of factors that were thought to be of decisive influence in improving the quality of education: qualifications and training of teaching staff; educational programming; improving educational resources and school management; innovation and educational research; careers and educational guidance; school inspections; and the evaluation of the education system.

In accordance with this demarcation of factors affecting quality, even before the LOGSE was passed, some measures worth highlighting were already beginning to be applied; for example, continuous training of teaching staff. "Teachers' centres" were created, as resource and training centres; there were a number of updating and in-service courses for secondary school teachers, in order to facilitate their adjustment to the new curricula and structure; in-school training programmes have also been promoted; a new system of remuneration has been designed, whereby training activities are financially rewarded.

A second feature is that the curriculum for this stage has been thoroughly reviewed, first through an experimental process and, second, through the drawing up of a new curricular model. Activity in teaching departments has been intensified in order to give greater coherence to the levels of teaching. For the last two years, schools have been in the process of drawing up their own curriculum project, which has laid the foundations of their teaching.

Third, guidance departments have been created in secondary schools, as it is believed that they are an essential means for dealing more personally and professionally with the problems involved in teaching and learning that people come across in the classroom. When the size of a school is too small for creating such a department, an adviser is assigned to the school.

Fourth, a programme for evaluating schools has been set in motion, with the intention of helping them to improve their organisation and operation. It is

anticipated that, over the next few years, such assessments should take place across the board. Several Autonomous Regions have begun similar programmes.

Finally, at the beginning of 1994, the Ministry of Education and Science presented a document for discussion wherein are described seventy-seven measures aimed at improving the quality of education and which, once discussed publicly, will be applied in the schools. Such measures, among others, refer to schools' autonomy, the running of the schools, assessing the educational reform process and reviewing some aspects of school inspection. The publication of the document shows the importance that education policy in Spain is currently attributing to quality improvement.

2. Funding

Secondary education in Spain is largely publicly financed, with funds provided by the central educational administration (Ministry of Education and Science), by the regional administrations and by local corporations, though other ministries also contribute to a certain extent (see Table 2). Approximately 80% of total spending on education comes from these sources, a slight upward tendency having been seen over the last few years. This even amounts to a total of 85% at the primary and secondary education levels.

Public funds are not solely destined for state education; they also revert to private schools through subsidies and student scholarships. According to the Spanish Constitution, private schools have the right to receive help from the state to cover part of their educational activities, throughout the compulsory school period. Granting of such financial aid requires the signing of agreements, according to which the school is obliged to meet certain conditions, such as being free-of-charge, having a school council, and having a student selection process occur that is similar to that of state schools.

In state secondary schools (both EGB, and BUP or VT), there is no registration fee. In addition, transportation services, school meals and board are provided free-of-charge, in given cases, during the compulsory school period (which covers lower secondary). Parents are responsible for covering school meals and transportation costs provided during non-compulsory school periods, and may even contribute to extracurricular activities through voluntary payment of fees to parents' associations. Payments to teaching staff represent about 65% of total spending in primary and secondary education.

Private schools can receive financial subsidies from the state (direct grant schools) or be financed solely through fees paid by families. In the case of direct grant schools, the subsidies largely affect compulsory schooling levels,

with the administration setting the maximum amount that is to be paid by the student. At present, 90% of private EGB schools and 30% of BUP/VT schools have signed such an agreement.

At all educational levels, both in state and in private schools, families pay for school materials and textbooks, although there are public financing programmes for textbooks for the compulsory schooling level. Complementary educational activities, such as extracurricular activities, remedial classes, etc., are also generally financed by the families.

Table 1: Public and private spending on education (overall and secondary) and gross domestic product (in thousands of millions of pesetas)

	Spending on education				GDP
	Overall		Of which secondary		
	State[1]	Private	State	Private	
1970	45.2				2 629,9
1975	107.5				6 038,2
1980	382.4	193.5			15 168,0
1985	1 045.9	353.6	510.4		28 200,9
1990	2 232.1	555.8	1 158.4	164.3	50 119,9
1991	2 506.4	607.5	1 293.0	189.7	54 829,6
1992	2 749.9		1 416.4		58 853,0

1. Figures for 1970, 1975 and 1980 correspond only to the budget of the Ministry of Education and Science.
Source: Data from the Ministry of Education and Science

Table 1 shows how spending on education has increased steadily since the 1970s. In 1991, it totalled 5,6% of GDP as compared to 5,0% in 1985. Almost 90% of government spending on education was devoted to schooling and teaching and only 10% to other, related activities. Spending on secondary education made in 1991 up 51,6% of total spending, and represented 48,1% of overall spending. Spending on education per secondary school student represented 22,3% of GDP per capita.

By and large, as can be seen, spending on secondary education in Spain has kept growing for the two last decades, even though the figures are still lower than in most other industrialised countries.

Table 2: Distribution of public spending on education (overall and secondary) in 1992[1] (in millions of pesetas)

	Education overall	Secondary education
Funding from the Ministry of Education and Science	986.9	481.1
Funding from other ministries	197.7	152.5
Funding from Autonomous Governments	1 418.1	713.6
Funding from local and provincial governments	147.2	69.2
Total	2 749.9	1 416.4

1. Provisional figures.
Source: Data from the Ministry of Education and Science.

3. School and society

School councils

The school council is the participatory body that represents the different members of the school community. For this reason, it can be considered to constitute the principal communication channel between school and society. It is the school's main governing body and its role is not merely advisory. Its decision-making power encompasses the organisation of the school in its administrative, academic and economic aspects.

The school councils are composed of the school head, who acts as chairperson, the director of studies, a councillor or town council representative, a set number of teachers elected by the teachers' senate, of pupils' parents elected from among the parents, of pupils elected from those of the school, of members of the administrative and services personnel (ASP) and the school's secretary, who acts as the council's secretary, with voice and no vote. The specific number of teacher, parent and student representatives on the school council depends on the school's size.

Elected members of associated bodies are replaced every two years. The responsibilities of the school council in state schools are as follows:

– to choose the head and to designate the executive team that he proposes. This is one of the most important functions of the council, since the head will be its chairperson and a key figure in the school's operation. His election requires the absolute majority of the members of the council. In EGB schools, the pupils cannot intervene in the election of the head, nor in the designation

of the executive team or involvement on a proposal for the head's removal from office;

– to decide on student admissions, according to the criteria established in the LODE and the provisions for their implementation;

– to solve student conflicts and disciplinary problems, according to the procedures that govern their rights and duties;

– to approve and evaluate the annual general programme, the school budget and the rules of procedure. These attributions make the council the fundamental governing body of the school;

– to draw up guidelines for complementary activities, for extracurricular activities and for co-operation with other schools to educational ends, to be informed of the school's relations with other organisations and to establish criteria on their participation in sports, cultural activities, etc;

– to be informed about and to supervise the school's main internal operating guidelines, referring to administrative aspects as well as performance and assessment;

– to develop and to ensure the upkeep of school facilities and equipment;

– to make an annual report on the school's activities and its general situation.

The first elections to school councils took place in 1986, and the last were held during the academic year 1992/93. Tables 3 and 4 show data from a study on participation in each sector of the school community for the main types of secondary schools.

Table 3: Changes in levels of participation in elections to school councils in MEC state EGB schools

	1986	1988	1990	1992
Teachers	98.0%	91.1%	94.9%	85.4%
ASP[1]	90.9%	93.0%	82.1%	82.2%
Parents	44.3%	31.3%	23.5%	18.6%
Pupils	81.6%	91.0%	86.3%	80.3%

1. Administrative and services personnel.

Source: Consejo escolar del estado (1992 y 1993): Informe sobre el estado y situación del sistema educativo. Curso 1990-91 y Curso 1991-92. Madrid: MEC.

Table 4: Changes in the levels of participation in school council elections in MEC state BUP/COU schools

	1986	1988	1990	1992
Teachers	94.3%	85.6%	85.0%	72.2%
ASP[1]	91.9%	71.0%	82.8%	77.3%
Parents	21.8%	16.4%	9.46%	6.67%
Pupils	64.6%	68.4%	40.2%	48.9%

1. Administrative and services personnel

Source: *Consejo escolar del estado (1992 y 1993). Informe sobre el estado y situación del sistema educativo. Curso 1990-91 y Curso 1991-92.* Madrid, MEC.

When analysing the functioning of the school councils, it is important to point out some of the problems highlighted by related sources. There is, in all too many cases, a lack of participation by pupils, and administrative and service staff; the habitual absence of the town council representative, perceived, not as the representative of the people or district where the school is located, but as a representative of the local authority, is another common problem. Criticism has also been voiced that, at school council meetings, too many administrative topics are dealt with, detracting from matters of more importance in education. Nevertheless, the school councils have permitted the institutional organisation of the participation of different sectors of the school community, thus generating a new culture of participation. This has resulted in much stronger links between families and schools than was traditionally the case in Spain before the LODE. In fact, the participation of the families, together with the teachers, has become an established reality.

Parents' and pupils' associations

The participation of parents and pupils in the education system is not limited to their presence on the school councils. There are also other channels of participation, such as student and parent associations, through which they participate in school life.

The right to establish a pupils' association was already established in the LODE, and further developed in a royal decree in 1986 which regulated pupils' associations. All pupils of private and state schools, from the upper grades of the EGB onwards, can belong to such associations, the legal purposes of which are as follows:

– to express pupils' opinions on everything affecting their situation at school;

– to collaborate in the educational work of schools and in its complementary and extracurricular activities;

– to promote student participation in the school's associated bodies;

– to undertake cultural and sports activities, and those which will encourage co-operative action and team work;

– to promote federations and confederations;

– to facilitate the exercise of pupils' rights recognised by the legislation in force;

– to aid pupils in exercising their right to intervene in the control and management of schools supported by public funds;

– to facilitate the representation of pupils on the school council of the state and direct grant schools and the participation of pupils in overall educational programming through the corresponding associated bodies.

In the last few years, a spectacular advance in the number of pupils' associations in Spain has taken place. However, the figures are still low. In EGB there are practically no pupils' associations, while in BUP, on the other hand, there is already a good number of them, whose cultural and representative activities and claims on behalf of pupils are noteworthy.

The LODE also reaffirms the freedom of parents to co-operate and participate in educational matters. Such participation is carried out through the parents' associations, which exist in the majority of schools. In Spain, parents' associations (PAs) are recognised as such if they are composed of the parents and guardians of the pupils studying in state or private schools, whatever their educational level, but not including universities. According to existing regulations, the purposes of PAs should be:

– to involve parents or guardians in everything concerning the education of their children or dependants;

– to collaborate in the schools' educational activities;

– to encourage the participation of pupils' parents in the running of the school;

– to involve the pupils' parents in exercising their right to intervene in the supervision and management of those schools which are publicly funded;

– to facilitate the representation and the participation of pupils' parents on the school council of state and direct-grant schools and on other associated bodies.

The PAs may use the premises of educational establishments for their activities. They can also become federated or confederated at a broader local or regional level. A large number of parents' associations are federated in two federations: the *Confederación española de Padres de Alumnos* or CEAPA (Spanish Parents' Federation) and the *Confederación Católica Nacional de Padres de Familia y Padres de Alumnos* or CONCAPA (National Catholic Federation of Family Parents and Pupils' Parents). Relations with parents associations tend to be very good in schools, where they organise, collaborate and finance a large part of the extracurricular and complementary activities that take place.

The level of association among pupils' parents is quite widespread in Spain. In fact, in most non-university educational establishments there is a parents' association that collaborates with the school. Another matter, however, is the real participation of parents within these associations, which is in fact still at a lower level than could be hoped for.

Relationships with companies and other institutions

As regards relations with companies, one of the purposes of all levels of secondary education is the preparation of their pupils for working life, although, logically, it is in the field of vocational training where this aim is given the greatest importance. From this point of view, the aim is for pupils to be in touch with the world of work through multiple activities. However, it is in vocational training where these relations are more institutionalised. The Ministry of Education and Science has set a training programme in motion, known as sandwich courses through which pupils in vocational training at advanced level can add a practical work component to their training. The inclusion of such a practical component is optional. It is regulated through a contract between the school and the company in question, in which the company commits itself to accept the pupils for a certain number of hours, in exchange for a token amount of money. Pupils do not receive any monetary remuneration. In the school, it is the administrator who establishes contact with companies, deals with the contracts and monitors the practical component of the course. In 1989 there were 43 699 pupils involved in such "practical components" in 10 603 companies for a total of 6 258 361 hours.

In the new vocational training curricula, practical components in companies are compulsory for all pupils at module levels II and III. In this case, the teacher-co-ordinator of each module is responsible for monitoring and supervising these practical periods, establishing and maintaining relations with companies by means of contracts between schools and companies, just as in the case of the sandwich course practical component.

Relations with society

Schools can also maintain relations with town councils, Autonomous Regions, ministries, foundations, cultural associations, etc. For example, many towns organise school campaigns in various areas (theatre, music, painting, sports, libraries, environmental education, health campaigns, etc.) aimed at secondary pupils. Another example is that practically all museums tend to have entrance conditions and activities specially designed for schools.

Similarly, although to a lesser extent, these schools can become social activities centres, offering their services and facilities to the community. More than a few parents or adult education centres hold their meetings in school facilities in the evenings or at weekends. Nor is it unusual to find that the schools' facilities are used for competitions, or the assembly halls as the headquarters of various representative groups within the community. Although there are no data on the frequency and type of these activities, they are taking place on a much smaller scale than would be desirable, and the establishments which undertake such activities are few. For this reason, the Ministry of Education and Science wants to encourage the opening of schools to the community out of school hours.

4. Curricular organisation of secondary education

As has already been mentioned above, the Spanish education system is in the process of reform. At the current time, application of the LOGSE is comprehensive throughout pre-school and primary education, while secondary education is continuing to develop in most schools in accordance with the structure and programmes set out in the 1970 Act.

However, since implementation of the reform policy is meant to take place on a step-by-step, gradual, basis, some schools are already implementing the new secondary education levels and programmes (on a voluntary basis). This will provide them with the necessary experience to be able to solve the difficulties involved in the comprehensive implementation of this new educational stage. More than a quarter of the secondary schools have already begun this early implementation in one or more years, or cycles.

The implementation of the LOGSE implies the adoption of a set of changes in curricular policy, above all with respect to the decentralisation of the curriculum, greater comprehensiveness and, at the same time, a greater number of options in terms of contents. From a fixed syllabus, drawn up by the central administration, a change towards the involvement of four different levels in drawing up the curriculum has been introduced. At the first level is the central administration which, in accordance with the LOGSE, establishes the core

curriculum education for all pupils. At a second level are the regional administrations which give concrete form to the proposals in the official curricula. The third level corresponds to the schools themselves, which are responsible for drawing up the school's curricular projects. And, lastly, each team of teachers of a particular grade draws up the programme for each group of pupils. This decentralisation affects the amount of time devoted to each subject on the timetable. In the development of the LOGSE, the central administration fixes a minimum number of hours, whilst giving the regional administrations leeway to carry out the adjustments and additions they deem necessary. The margin given is 45% for those Autonomous Regions with a language other than Castilian, and 35% for those without such a language. All schools, state as well as private, have to follow this scheme in setting the curriculum, and thus have an identical degree of autonomy in this sense.

On the other hand, with the new plans, the choice between an education of an academic type *(Bachillerato)* and another more career-oriented one (vocational training) is postponed from the age of 14 to the age of 16. This has been done through the introduction of a new level of compulsory secondary education, the result of which is greater comprehensiveness. With the existence of four modalities in the new *Bachillerato* (arts; natural and health sciences; humanities and social sciences; and technology), from the first year onwards, the number of options available has increased in comparison with the old syllabus. In the new compulsory secondary education, in addition to a common core made up of compulsory subjects for all pupils, the curriculum includes optional subjects which acquire growing importance throughout the educational stage concerned.

Furthermore, the curriculum includes a cross-section of topics that will have to be studied in all the different subject branches throughout the given educational stage: civic and moral education, education for peace, for health, for sexual equality, environmental education, sex education, consumer rights education and road safety education. Finally, to the optional and common core subjects must be added the particular subjects included for each modality in the new *Bachillerato*.

In the following, a description is given of the curriculum of each of the levels or modalities of secondary education, both in the LGE and in the LOGSE, showing the contents, methods, assessment and criteria for access and for promotion to a higher grade in each of them. The description refers to the prescriptive curriculum which all schools, whether state or private, should respect and observe.

EGB upper grades

In the upper grades (previously known as the second stage) of EGB, comprising grades 6, 7 and 8 (final three years of EGB), contents are grouped into study areas. This stage is marked by a greater degree of subject specialisation, as opposed to the more general nature of the previous grades. The areas and time devoted to each subject in the school timetable are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Timetable distribution in the upper grades of the EGB

Subjects	Hours (weekly)
Spanish	5
Mathematics	3.25
Modern language	3.25
Social sciences	2.5
Natural sciences	2.5
Art activities	3
Religion	1.5
Physical education & sports	2.5
Technology	1.5
Total	25

In the upper grades of EGB, school activities begin on 1 September and end on 30 June, although classes usually begin about 15 September and end towards 20 June. A two-week Christmas holiday and Easter holiday should also be taken into account. The school day consists of five hours teaching divided between morning and afternoon classes, from Monday to Friday. The school year therefore consists of approximately 850 hours of teaching.

The methodology implemented at this stage is essentially active, and is based on observation and experience. The student, however, has to be able to achieve a certain degree of abstraction and synthesis, whilst each student's particular evolutionary and psychological characteristics at this age should always be borne in mind.

Assessment is continuous and, above all, takes into account the pupil's progress in relation to his or her own abilities. Similarly, assessment is conceived as a systematic activity which is integrated in the educational process, and should not interrupt the progress of school work. There are no external tests either during or at the end of EGB, it being the teachers and the school itself which are responsible for the qualification granted to each student, both

for each year completed as well as at the end of this stage. The inspectorate supervises the criteria applied to ensure that they are correct. Notwithstanding the above, at the end of each course, tests are set on the basic aspects of the various subject areas, for those pupils who have not obtained a positive overall assessment for their respective year.

Since the upper grades form part of compulsory and basic education, there is no requirement for admission, other than that of having attained the objectives of the previous stage. In addition, pupils who may not have fully attained these objectives may enter the sixth year if they follow a personal remedial course. Alternatively, they can repeat the course on as many as two occasions. Once EGB has been completed, a two-tier qualification system exists. The pupils who obtain a positive valuation in all cycles (according to the criteria and assessment procedures established by their own school) receive the *Graduado Escolar* (Certificate of Basic Education) and those who do not receive a *Certificado de Escolaridad* (Certificate of School Attendance). The first qualification permits admission to *Bachillerato* as well as to vocational training at the initial level, while the School Attendance Certificate only permits admission to vocational training at the initial level. In the last ten years, the percentage of pupils who have passed the EGB has ranged from 75% to 80%, with slight annual variations.

Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente *or BUP (General Unified Secondary Education) and* Curso de Orientación Universitaria *or COU (University Guidance Course)*

The *Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente* or BUP (General Unified Baccalaureate) is divided into three courses, which in turn are followed by the *Curso de Orientación Universitaria* or COU (University Guidance Course), which is a course between secondary and higher education. Though the COU originated with a different purpose, as time has passed it has become the last year of the *Bachillerato*, which those pupils who wish to be take university entrance tests must follow.

The *Bachillerato* syllabus is characterised by the division of subjects into common subjects (which all pupils must take), optional subjects (from which all pupils have to choose three) and technical-professional subjects (of which the pupil has to study one of his or her choice). BUP and COU subjects and the time devoted to them on the timetable are shown in Tables 6 and 7.

Table 6: BUP curriculum

	Subjects			Hours (weekly)
BUP 1st grade	General	Natural science		4
		History of civilisations & art		4
		Spanish language & literature[1]		4
		Foreign language		4
		Mathematics		4
		Music		2
		Art		3
		Physical education & sports		2
		Religion		2
BUP 2nd grade	General	Physics and chemistry		4
		Social & economic geography		3
		Latin		4
		Spanish language & literature[1]		4
		Foreign language		4
		Mathematics		4
		Religion		2
		Physical education & sports		2
	EATP	Technical-professional teaching & activities		2
BUP 3rd grade	General	Foreign language		3
		Spanish history, Hispanic history, the Spanish Constitution		4
		Philosophy		4
		Religion		2
		Physical education		2
	EATP	Technical-professional teaching & activities		2
	Optional[2]	Option A	Literature	4
			Latin	4
			Greek	4
			Mathematics	4
		Option B	Literature	4
			Natural science	4
			Physics & chemistry	4
			Mathematics	4

1. Regional language teaching brought in as of 1978.
2. Pupils have to choose three subjects from either group A or B.

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Table 7: COU curriculum

University Guidance Course			Hours (weekly)
General	Foreign language		3
	Spanish[1]		3
	Philosophy		4
Optional[2]	Option A. Science and technology	Mandatory	
		– mathematics I	4
		– physics	4
		Optional	
		– chemistry	4
		– biology	4
		– geology	4
		– technical drawing	4
	Option B. Biological and chemical sciences	Mandatory	
		– chemistry	4
		– biology	4
		Optional	
		– mathematics I	4
		– physics	4
		– geology	4
		– technical drawing	4
	Option C. Social Sciences	Mandatory	
		– mathematics II	4
		– world history cont	4
		Optional	
		– literature	4
		– Latin	4
		– Greek	4
		– history of art	4
	Option D. Humanities	Mandatory	
		– literature	4
		– world history cont	4
		Optional	
		– Latin	4
		– Greek	4
		– history of art	4
		– mathematics	4

1 Regional language teaching, where applicable.
2 Pupils have to choose two out of the four optional subjects.

For BUP and COU, as for VT, the course usually starts on 1 October, ending on June 30. However, this is subject to change in exceptional circumstances. The school timetable for all pupils is twenty-nine hours a week during the three years of BUP Therefore, the number of school hours in an academic year is about 1 000.

The LGE places emphasis on the active and personalised characteristics that education must have in the *Bachillerato*: teaching is conceived as a form by which to direct a student's learning and not as an education exclusively centred on the explanation of the subject. It also emphasises the importance of developing the student's initiative, originality and creativity, and the mastering of techniques for intellectual work, approaches that one developed in an individual and group context.

For the assessment of BUP pupils, it is necessary to carry out continuous assessment and to apply tests of all the subjects at least twice a year (June and September). These tests are organised in an autonomous way by teaching departments made up of all the teachers in the school of a given area. In this way, coherence in criteria and assessment procedures applied in each school is assured. The pupils who do not pass a certain subject in June can take new tests in September. If they do not pass these tests, they will have to repeat the level, unless the failures are only in one or two subjects. In this case, they will be able to move up to the following level and the school will provide the pupils with the adequate remedial teaching.

In COU, the assessment of pupils is also carried out twice a year (June and September), the student having to pass the exams of all subjects on the syllabus set by each school in a similar way to BUP. If, after the September exams, a student does not pass more than three subjects, he must repeat the whole course. If he fails three or fewer subjects, he must register in COU again to receive remedial teaching. Pupils can register in COU for three years at most.

In order to enter the *Bachillerato* one must be in possession of the *Graduado Escolar* (Basic Education Certificate) or vocational training at initial level. The *Bachillerato* qualification is obtained by passing all the subjects of the three BUP levels without any kind of external or internal final test. It is a requirement to go to the university guidance course (COU) (which is necessary to enter university), to enrol in vocational training at intermediate level and to obtain certain jobs at intermediate level requiring only this title.

To study COU a student has to possess the *Bachillerato* qualification or that of vocational training at intermediate level. After passing COU, pupils are admitted to aptitude tests for entry to university, which take place in June

and September. These tests are in the optional and compulsory subjects of COU. Each student does eight tests, according to his or her syllabus. The tests are organised by the universities. University and *Bachillerato* teachers participate in preparation and correction in accordance with the criteria established by the corresponding COU Co-ordination Commission, in which the secondary schools are represented. The qualification given, which is general, takes into account the results of all the tests and the marks obtained in BUP and COU. Although the university is responsible for the tests, the pass marks are national in character, providing access to university studies in general. The qualification obtained determines requirements of admission to a given university. At present, approximately half of the pupils registered in COU take the entrance tests, of which a variable proportion between 80% and 90% obtain the pass mark.

Vocational training

The LGE structured vocational training into three levels. However, third level vocational training has not been regulated or developed; no reference therefore will be made to third level vocational training.

- *Vocational training at initial level (VTI)*

Vocational training at initial level lasts two years and is structured into three study areas that are mandatory for all pupils, regardless of the branch selected: general education, applied sciences (namely, the professional branch selected) and technical and practical studies (specific to each profession). Teaching at this level is basically active and centred around pupils' interests. A sense of realism should prevail in subject teaching, given the heterogenous nature of the pupils, such teaching can only be provided with a profound knowledge of circumstances and needs of pupils.

Student assessment in each subject takes place on an ongoing basis throughout the year, teachers providing marks at each assessment period. Once the student has passed each and every one of the subjects comprising an area, an overall mark is given. Should they fail in any subject, the student will be obliged to re-sit for it. The final mark is based on the various assessments made throughout the year, giving the pupil a global mark in the light of the overall results obtained in the various subject areas. If in some area the final mark is a fail, the student will have to follow remedial studies.

All pupils who complete EGB can start vocational training studies at initial level, whether they have obtained the *Graduado Escolar* (Basic Education Certificate) or the *Certificado de Escolaridad* (School Attendance Certificate).

These are free and compulsory for those under 16 who have completed the studies of the Basic General Education and do not go on to *Bachillerato*.

Pupils who complete vocational training studies at initial level obtain the title of assistant technician. The pupils who complete their studies but do not pass receive a School Attendance Certificate. The title of assistant technician permits admission to: vocational training at intermediate level (of the general system), once the complementary education given in vocational training schools has been passed; direct admission to the specialised part of vocational training at the intermediate level; and to the *Bachillerato*, where he can be registered at the same time in the second year and in the non-validated subjects of the first year.

- *Vocational training at intermediate level (VT II)*

Within vocational training at the intermediate level there are two modes: the general education system lasting two years, and the specialised education system, which involves three years of study and includes those specialties that require continuous practical training.

The contents, methods and assessment of VT II are governed by the same procedures as those for vocational training at initial level. Nevertheless, practical components constitute a key issue within this level, both because of their importance from an academic point of view, and for the training of the pupils, as well as because of the difficulties encountered by young people without any working experience when seeking to take up a post in the labour market once they have completed their studies.

Admission is granted to vocational training at intermediate level with the qualification of *Bachiller*, vocational training at initial level or with other equivalent qualifications from earlier syllabuses which are no longer current. To gain access to general system VT II, pupils who have completed VT I should pass a course of complementary education. To the specialised education system admission is direct with the assistant technician qualification or with the *Bachillerato* Pass Certificate. In this last case, the pupil can go on to the second year, with validations, which allows him or her to complete these studies within a two-year period.

Pupils who pass vocational training at the intermediate level, under either of the existing systems, obtain the qualification of technical specialist. They are, thus, entitled to gain access to COU (University Guidance Course), which allows them to register for any university course, or directly in the university schools which provide teaching similar to that given in the vocational training schools.

LOGSE

Compulsory secondary education

Compulsory secondary education encompasses four academic years, broken down into two biennial cycles: the first from ages 12 to 14, and the second for ages 14 to 16. This stage is comprehensive in nature and there are, therefore, no differentiated branches. Attention is paid to pupil diversity, but this has to be done in an individualised way and always within the framework of a common core, through adjustments and curricular diversifications. The guidance department plays a relevant role in these decisions.

Contents are organised around the studying of compulsory subject areas and include a series of optional subjects of growing importance throughout this educational stage. The areas that make up this common core, and the time devoted to them on the overall timetable in line with the minimum education requirements at this level, are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Schedule for compulsory secondary teaching

Subjects	Number of hours	
	First cycle	Second cycle
Natural Science	140	90
Social sciences, geography & history	140	160
Physical education	70	70
Plastic & visual arts	70	35
Spanish, language & literature	210	240
Foreign languages	210	240
Mathematics	140	160
Music	70	35
Technological studies	125	70
Religion/study activities	105	105

Source: Internal, based on legislation.

In the last course of this stage, students have to choose two of the four following areas: natural sciences, plastic and visual arts, music and technology. For the second cycle it has been foreseen that natural sciences be split into two different subjects. Similarly, in the fourth course, mathematics is broken down into two branches, each with a different curriculum. "Morality and ethics" can also be made into a specific subject as a part of social sciences.

In addition to the common core, which is composed of those subjects that are compulsory to all students, the curriculum at the compulsory secondary education level will cover optional subjects. Among these, schools should always schedule in a second foreign language and classical culture, for at least one of the years of the second cycle. Education authorities should foster the autonomy of schools, particularly as regards defining and programming optional subjects. All such decisions are to be part of the curricular project that each school is obliged to produce.

Methodology is adapted to the students, favouring their capacity to learn by themselves whilst working in a team, and providing them with a basic understanding of reality, in accordance with the basic principles of science.

Assessment of compulsory secondary education should be continuous and integrative. The curriculum established by the central and autonomous governments include the assessment criteria that need to be taken into account by the teachers. It is, nevertheless, up to each school to establish the objectives and the sequence of learning within the various areas, as well as to establish the criteria and specific assessment procedures to be included in the school's curricular project. Consequently, each school and its teaching staff is responsible for its own assessment process. Any student who has not achieved the first cycle objectives set for this stage will be allowed to attend the cycle for another year, and for an additional one in any of the second cycle grades, provided he/she has not repeated more than two courses throughout compulsory education.

Access to compulsory secondary education is direct once the students have achieved the objectives that correspond to primary education.

Students who have reached the objectives corresponding to a particular stage obtain the qualification Graduado en Educación Secundaria (Secondary Education Graduate). This certificate is granted on the basis of the assessment of the student in each specific stage. There is no overall examination, neither external nor internal. This qualification allows a student access to *Bachillerato* and to specific vocational training at the intermediate level. All students, whether or not they have attained the objectives set for the stage, receive a school certificate, stating the number of years studied and the subject qualification obtained in the various subjects.

Bachillerato

The *Bachillerato* consists of two academic years and is structured according to modalities corresponding to broad fields of study and professions: arts, natural, biological and chemical sciences, humanities and social sciences, and

technology. The subject contents are broken down into common subjects which are compulsory for all students, subjects specific to each modality and optional subjects. Although slight differences between Autonomous Regions exist, in particular with respect to the learning of regional languages, Table 9 shows the distribution of subjects by courses, as well as their overall share in the timetable for the territory covered by the MEC. It provides a good example as to how curricula are developed in the schools.

Table 9: Common subjects and *bachillerato*-specific subjects by modality and year

	First year	Second year
Common subjects	Physical education Philosophy Spanish language & literature I Foreign language I	History Spanish language & literature II Foreign language II
Art studies	Art: drawing I Technical drawing Volume	History of art Image Origins of design Graphic-plastic expression techniques
Natural, biological and chemical sciences	Biology & chemistry Physics and chemistry Mathematics I	Biology World and environmental sciences Technical drawing Physics Mathematics II Chemistry
Humanities and social sciences	Economics Greek Modern history Latin I Mathematics applied within social sciences I	Economics & business administration Geography History of art History of philosophy Latin II Mathematics applied within social sciences II
Technological studies	Physics and chemistry Mathematics I Industrial technology I	Technical drawing Electrical engineering Physics Mathematics II Mechanics Industrial technology

Source: Internal, based on legislation

Bachillerato methodologies aim at fostering a student's capacity for learning, at being able to work in a team and at being able to apply the most appropriate investigative techniques. It also emphasises the relationship between the theoretical aspects of the subjects and their practical applications in society.

Assessment of the students is carried out by teachers and schools, by subject and course. There are no overall examinations, neither internal nor external, at the end of the various stages. Those students who obtain positive grades in all of their *Bachillerato* subjects will be awarded the degree of *Bachiller* (*Bachillerato* Certificate), specifying which modality has been studied. This certificate allows access to vocational training at the advanced level and to higher education. In the latter case, it is necessary to pass an entrance test to the university.

Specific vocational training at the intermediate level

Specific vocational training at the intermediate level, implemented as yet only on an experimental basis, will combine a set of training cycles with modular organisation, of variable duration, comprising theoretical and practical study areas in accordance with the various professional fields.

It is important to emphasise that the curriculum for specific vocational training at the intermediate level will include a practical training phase at work centres. To this end, the educational authorities will provide the necessary means for achieving corporate and institutional involvement in the development of this educational programme.

The educational methodologies, applied specific vocational training, aim at promoting and integrating a scientific, technological and organisational content. In addition, such methodologies serve to nurture a student's capacity for learning and for working as part of a team.

In order to enter vocational training at the intermediate level, students must have obtained a Secondary Education Pass Certificate. Access to specific vocational training is, however, possible, even when the established academic requirements have not been fulfilled, as long as the candidate passes a specific test showing that he or she has sufficient skills to derive direct benefit from the training programme.

Students who pass specific vocational training at the intermediate level will obtain a Technical Certificate corresponding to the profession in question. The certificate enables the student to enter the baccalaureate modalities to be determined, taking into account each student's relationship with the studies of corresponding vocational training.

Programmes for inequality compensation

Institutional mechanisms have been initiated within the Spanish education system in order to contribute to putting the equal opportunities principle into effect. Among these mechanisms, emphasis should be placed on actions within the field of remedial teaching and government policy towards scholarships and education aids.

Remedial teaching is intended to reinforce the action of the education system in order to avoid the inequalities resulting from social, economic, cultural, geographic, ethnic or other factors. Until now actions have been developed in five large programmes: attention to rural areas, projects in schools, attention to the unschooled, cultural minorities and the itinerant population.

Attention programme for rural areas

The objectives of this programme include improving the infrastructure of rural schools, palliating isolation of both school and teachers, seeking teaching and organisational models that are adapted to the environment, caring for pre-school children, and carrying out specific programmes to alleviate the educational deficits present in that area. It is a preventive programme conceived more as a support to teachers than as direct support to the student, who is thus given this attention in a subsidiary manner.

In this context, resource centres and support services are mechanisms which give rural schools the necessary backing. While they do not have permanent staff, they operate as a support service that mobilises resources and makes them available to the schools. Resource centres offer a meeting point for teachers within a given geographical area and are equipped with documentation services and teaching materials. Support services reinforce resource centres by providing schools with any materials, methods and programming support they might require. Their principal areas of work include making provision for resources, establishing working groups, providing direct attention to schools, accomplishing inter-school projects and developing activities for parents and the community, and activities related to management and administration.

"Pre-school at home" is a sub-programme aimed at teaching 3, 4 and 5-year-old children at home. It is designed to reach those villages where distance and deficient communications hinder adequate schooling.

In order to promote schooling at the lower levels within rural areas, the Ministry of Education and Science has created the so-called Rural Schools Group for EGB, or CRAs, of broad financial and managerial autonomy. Resource

centres provide support to CRAs, where schools for one or more villages are located.

Finally, this programme also includes the actions of Rural Centres for Educational Innovation (CRIEs), which are basically aimed at orienting students towards joint extracurricular activities and workshops, with a frequency ranging, in accordance with schedules established by the centres, from fifteen days per quarter to three weeks per school year.

Projects for schools

The main objective of this programme is to care for groups of students with marked socio-cultural deficiencies and to initiate projects which both help to correct the imbalance between their ages and the school year they have been assigned to, and decrease the drop-out rates. The programme encourages students to stay at school at least until they reach the age of 16.

These projects are carried out both at EGB schools and vocational training centres. In the latter case, the aim is to counter deficiencies of young people who enter the first year of VT, at the initial level and, above all, to prevent drop-out, which is relatively frequent at this stage. Projects in VT centres include changes in the curriculum, providing support in the techno-practical and experimental domains and working with a greater number of teachers per group of students.

Programmes for the unschooled

This programme is aimed at the unschooled within the 14 to 16-year-old age range. As already mentioned, schooling is compulsory until the age of 16. Those students who abandoned the EGB before that age have to continue their VT studies at the initial level. This programme is intended to enforce the mandatory nature of education not only in its merely formal aspects, but also facilitating the schooling and social integration of such young people.

Activities are centred around occupational workshops, whose objectives are to complete the basic training of the students, preparing them both for the education system and for the professional environment while, at the same time, adapting the education offer to the characteristics of this particular sector of the population. High-priority activities in these classrooms are those linked to mechanics and handicraft, in addition to guidance for underprivileged groups of students. Occupational workshops may be considered non-formal education, since they do not yield an official title. However, the educational objectives are to enable students to attain training levels that correspond with certain official certificates.

Programmes for cultural minorities

Over the past few years, Spain's traditional migratory trend has changed. Spain now receives a growing number of immigrants. This has generated new educational needs requiring specific treatment. In order to respond to such a situation, the Ministry of Education and Science has started a programme aimed at education for minorities. The programme is based on the assumption that schooling of such cultural and ethnic minorities needs to take into account the various socio-cultural backgrounds as well as the trauma of being uprooted. For this reason, any attempt at schooling and support must take into account certain peculiarities such as, for example, nomadic trends and a high degree of mobility among some of these groups.

The programme has centred its attention on the Gypsy population and has focused on attempts at locating and schooling Gypsy children. One of its achievements has been the schooling of over 80% of the Gypsy children between the ages of 6 and 9 years – even though at the age of 11 drop-out occurs, a process which affects over 50% of the population within this age-group.

Parallel support action aimed at the Portuguese immigrant population in ordinary schools has also been initiated. Support, on this front, comes in the form of ten Portuguese teachers and one Spanish teacher in charge of co-ordination. Subsequent school terms have seen similar actions extended to other migratory ethnic groups.

Programmes for the itinerant population

This programme is directed at the children of those people who, fundamentally as a result of their professional occupation, have no regular place of residence. This situation mainly affects circus people, fairground operators and other people temporarily employed in fruit harvesting or sports tournaments. The aim is to achieve full levels of schooling of this itinerant section of the population and to standardise their training. One of the initiatives already developed, as part of this programme, is a school report card for children belonging to these groups.

Despite not all programmes having the same degree of coverage, the overall number of students involved is quite high. Over the last few years, these numbers have varied, but remain around the 175 000 students-per-year mark for schools within the competence of the Ministry of Education and Science.

Scholarships and student subsidies are intended to compensate for socio-economic inequalities which might negatively affect a person's right to edu-

cation. In secondary education, aids granted are dependent on individual capacity and scholastic achievement attained by the students. The amount of money destined by the Ministry of Education and Science to scholarships and help for secondary education students, during the 1990/91 academic year, totalled 19 898 thousand million pesetas, to which additional grants awarded by other administrations and by private and public entities should be added.

Catering for children with special educational needs

The concept of special educational needs is related to the idea of diversity among students. All students, throughout their school attendance, require various types of individual teaching help, whether of a technical or of a material kind, in order to enable and allow them to achieve the overall objectives set out in their syllabus. Catering for specific educational needs is also directed at those students who, in a more complementary and more specialised way, might require other, more periodic assistance. This is defined as a range of support the student needs in accomplishing his or her developmental goals and learning processes within the educational system at the ordinary school level.

Specific mention is made in the Spanish Constitution of the general principle of catering for special educational needs; namely, the right by which education for all Spaniards is guaranteed. By virtue of the Constitution, the Spanish authorities ensure that specialised attention be given to those individuals requiring it. These principles were developed in the Law of Social Integration of the Handicapped, 1982, and, more specifically, in the Integration at School Programme, regulated by a Royal Decree of 1985. The implementation of the aforementioned programme has been a high-priority objective for the Ministry of Education and Science (MEC) over the last years, a constant, if gradual, increase in the number of students attending being registered. At present, there are more than 100 000 students involved in this programme.

One of the first consequences of the application of the integration programme is that students with special educational needs be sent to school, whether in ordinary schools at infant education, primary and compulsory secondary level (or initial vocational training) or in specific education centres for the handicapped (including special schools for vocational training). Schooling begins and ends at the regular legal age, though it may be extended until the age of 18 should this be necessary. Only in cases where schooling is not possible in ordinary schools do activities take place in specific centres, where students stay only for as long as required to attain ordinary school integration status.

The implementation process for the Integration at School Programme started several years ago, with infant and primary education students. At present it is being extended to compulsory secondary education. Inclusion of a school in the programme is voluntary and has to be requested by the teachers. Schooling for those students with special educational needs is both mandatory and free at the schools receiving public funding.

Special educational attention is accomplished through various forms of support and adaptation, in addition to using and developing previously existing resources. The techniques respond to the principles of individualisation and diversity: teamwork among teachers, tutorials (devised with the help of the school guidance department), flexible timetables, curricular classroom adjustments and work-sharing among the so-called educational and psychopedagogical orientation teams (preferably attending ordinary schools integrating students with special educational needs). There are additional adjustments, related to the level and the object of the teaching activity. In the case of compulsory secondary education, cross-curricular topics are used in order to help students to develop general concepts and to enable them to better relate to the learning process. In schools that are specifically for handicapped students, special attention is paid to the socialisation processes and to the development of special vocational training manipulative abilities and skills. At all levels, assessment, in addition to being formative and continuous, is the starting point and a mandatory point of reference for all decisions taken by the teachers, as well as by psycho-pedagogical experts and by parents.

The LOGSE establishes normalisation and integration at school as governing principles of education of children with special educational needs. The principle of normalisation allows for each and every citizen to benefit from the general services of the community, in particular those requiring special educational conditions. The integration principle implies applying that same normalisation principle within the education system. In this sense, the law assumes that the educational system possesses the necessary resources to enable such students to reach the objectives established in a more general manner for students of all kinds within the education system.

Parallel to the development of the LOGSE Act, parts of the previous system still stand; a legal system by which the principles of individualisation and sectorisation are defined. The former refers to the degree of attention that each student needs, at every moment, to ensure the optimum development of his or her own capabilities. This principle implies recognition of the diversity of the students, particularly within the ordinary education system, and acknowledges the fact that there may be many students with special educational needs who will, nonetheless, fit into that system. The aforementioned prin-

ciple is associated with the carrying out of an assessment of the student, his environment and the curricular adjustments made in the classroom. The latter principle, sectorisation, refers to closer attention being paid to a student's home environment, given that this helps to bring about a greater degree of participation on the part of the student's family in the education process.

Counselling and guidance

Within the education system, as established by the LGE, and, more specifically, as designed by the LOGSE Act, it is considered that orientation at a personal, academic and professional level plays a fundamental role during secondary education. Counselling to students and orientation work are inherent in the educational process itself; and, it is for this very reason that they should form a part of the school curriculum and be present in all classroom programmes.

The purpose being to attend to individual differences, the new curricular model defined by the LOGSE Act for Secondary Education allows for adjustments to be implemented and specified in different ways, from the school curricular project level down to the teacher-defined class programming level. In exceptional cases, the LOGSE allows for curricular diversifications for students aged over 16 to be established; students whose educational needs will not be covered by the curriculum content. Curricular diversification defines the possibility whereby given students, with due prior advice and guidance, may be exempted from studying one or more subjects, normally considered compulsory, devoting instead a part of their timetable to studying specific subjects which might better provide for integration into the labour market or, even, to undertaking alternative studies in other more highly specialised schools. Experimental curricula of this kind were tested throughout the whole of the 1993/94 academic year.

LOGSE establishes that all students, whether or not they attain the curricular objectives, receive a school certificate, specifying the number of years of attendance and the qualifications obtained in the various areas, along with an orientational comment regarding the student's professional and academic outlook for the future. Specifically, for those students who fail to obtain the certificate, the report provides an indication regarding those specific mechanisms required for the said certificate or, at the very least, on how to achieve first level vocational qualifications.

Social guarantee programmes have been established to ensure professional training, as preparation for working life or further education to all students. Programmes consist of three modalities: a. those given at school level, nor-

mally secondary schools where specific advanced level vocational training is given; *b*. those provided jointly with city councils; *c*. programmes offered in conjunction with non-government associations or organisations. Until now, the Ministry of Education and Science operates only the first two modalities. In the 1993/94 academic year, these programmes were taken by some 1 500 students in 100 schools throughout those regions under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Science.

Finally, as part of the measures adopted in developing orientation work in secondary schools, a department of guidance has been created to be supported by other similar external interdisciplinary services; the aim of the latter is, mainly, to attend to those psychological needs that may surpass the expected remit of the departments of guidance.

5. The school as an organisation and as a community

Schools form an inseparable part of the community in which they are set, generally reflecting that community's values and attitudes. Problems arising from relationships affecting the community also influence school life, in the same way that behavioural problems at school reflect upon relationships within the community. To a certain degree, to speak of problems in relationships at school is to speak of society's problems. For example, schools located in areas of economic depression, areas where there is a high degree of social discontent, receive and transmit these problems, such as drug or violence problems that are similar to those in the neighbourhood where the school is located. In the same way, the social attitude with regard to such matters as violence, isolation, alcohol consumption or immigration is reflected in students' behaviour. Contrary to what might occur in other countries, however, in Spain there is no generalised feeling that schools face serious problems of violence or conflict. For, despite the fact that both potential and actual situations of conflict do occur, the press makes relatively little mention of such incidents.

The rules for each school are set out in the Internal School Regulations, a document which serves as a framework within which the relationships between the school's staff and student body are given shape. Each school develops its own regulations; there are, therefore, no two models alike. Nevertheless, a typical internal school regulation might contain the following paragraphs:

- type of school;
- school administrative body;
- other related bodies;

– educational bodies and/or activities;

– rights and duties of the members of the educational community and operational procedures

– services and activities that school facilities may be applied to.

Internal school regulations are normally enforced by a school council commission, wherein parents, teachers and students are represented; additionally, regulations have to be approved by the school council for those schools receiving public funds.

As regards absenteeism among students, there is no global data on absenteeism in secondary schools. Given that class attendance is mandatory for students in all schools, in most cases, when absenteeism becomes excessive, it results in the student abandoning his or her studies. There are no follow-up studies to show absenteeism as being one of the major problems encountered by the education system at the present time and, more specifically, at the level of secondary education.

Neither is there any data on the number of students in paid employment or on the effects that part-time work has on levels of scholastic achievement. Nevertheless, given the high unemployment rate that affects the young population and the length of the school day, it is unlikely that the number of working students would reach significant levels. Special mention has to be made of distance secondary education and the evening courses offered in some schools; however, these students are more likely to be adults who want to improve their prospects than working youth.

6. Evaluation and assessment

Assessing students

Assessing students in secondary education should be a specific, continuous and formative activity. This assessment is carried out in the classroom on an individual level by each of the teachers and, also jointly, by the teaching staff. The characteristics of assessment at each educational level are explained above in curricular organisation. In Spain, apart from the entrance examination for university, there is no external mechanism for the assessment of students.

Evaluating the education system

The LOGSE attributes singular importance to the general evaluation of the education system. For this reason, in 1993 the organisation and operation of

the *Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación* (National Institute of Quality and Evaluation, INCE), which is dependent on the Ministry of Education and Science, has been approved. Its principal governing body, in which the Autonomous Regions are represented, is the Governing Council which approves the work plans to be carried out. According to its founding decree, the principal functions of INCE are the following:

– to assess the degree of acquisition of the core curriculum established for the various levels, stages and grades of the education system;

– to assess the general reforms of the education system, as well as the structure, range and results of the general innovations introduced;

– to establish a national indicators system which allows the efficiency and effectiveness of the education system to be evaluated;

– to co-ordinate at the national level and to participate in international evaluation studies;

– to create assessment systems for the various curricula regulated by the LOGSE and their corresponding schools;

– to co-operate with the administrations, institutions and organisations that have some responsibility in educational evaluation;

– to report to the different sectors of society on the operation and results of the education system;

– to provide and exchange information with the educational authorities in order to facilitate decision-making;

– to publish and disseminate the results of the assessments as well as the innovations occurring in the evaluation field.

At the current time, the INCE is in the process of being organised and therefore its programme of action for the coming years has not yet been approved.

Before the start-up of the new INCE, the CIDE (Centre for Research, Documentation and Evaluation), an organisation run by the Ministry of Education and Science, had conducted a partial evaluation of the education system. In the part which refers to secondary education the following are worthy of note:

– the external evaluation of the experimental reform of intermediate education, which was designed to analyse whether the experimental reform of intermediate education produced better, worse or equal results with respect to academic achievement, aptitudes, academic and professional expectations, civic and social attitudes, emotional reactions towards studying and in

teaching variables than those of students studying under the current system (BUP or VT);

– the external evaluation of the experimental reform in the upper grades of EGB. This assessment, analogous to the previous one, was conceived and developed with the aim of verifying whether the reform of the upper grades of EGB obtained educational achievements different from those obtained by the education system in force. The areas analysed were academic achievement, civic and social attitudes, motivation, satisfaction, study habits, socialisation and teaching variables;

– the evaluation of professional modules, designed to evaluate awareness of professional modules by the different groups involved, their degree of satisfaction, the advantages and drawbacks of the modules, etc.

Spain has also taken part in international research aimed at studying secondary education outcomes, such as the international assessment of educational progress in mathematics and science (IAEP), run by the ETS, the reading literacy study or the third international mathematics and science study, both co-ordinated by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The Spanish authorities are interested in continuing the development of these types of studies, which provide information on the state of our education system in comparison with those of other, neighbouring countries.

Evaluating schools

On the other hand, the inspectorate (SITE) is carrying out a plan for school evaluation, designed in collaboration with the CIDE. The goal of this plan is to contribute to the qualitative improvement of the schools and to provide support to internal evaluation activities instead of making a judgement on them or comparisons between them. In other words, it is considered a formative evaluation rather than a summative one. The schools evaluated represent various educational levels, the goal is to cover the spectrum of existing school types.

The plan for school evaluation was started in that part of the system which comes under the justification of the Ministry of Education and Science. Nevertheless, some Autonomous Regions have started developing similar programmes. During the academic year 1991/92, an experimental stage was initiated where approximately 50 primary and secondary schools were evaluated. During the year 1992/93 this experiment was extended, covering up to 150 schools. As a consequence of the plan, an evaluation report for each school has been prepared and discussed with the teachers, management

teams and school councils, as has a summary report, synthesising the implementation of the plan. The MEC objective is to turn this plan into a general one, so that within a few years all state schools will be covered by the plan and it will be applied periodically. The seventy-seven measures recently presented by the ministry for the qualitative improvement of teaching include the aforesaid extension of the plan for the school evaluation.

As for the appraisal of teachers, no procedure has been defined in Spain yet, although the question is being studied.

School Inspectorate

The task of inspecting rests, according to the LOGSE, with the educational administrations. Its purpose is to guarantee the implementation of the law and to improve the quality of the education system. Thus, every administration with full competence organises its own inspectorate autonomously, within the general framework set by the act. In spite of this considerable degree of autonomy, the customary models of inspectorate organisation and operation are quite similar, because until a few years ago, they were part of a single national service. Perhaps in the future, differences in models will increase, as may happen in other areas of the education system.

Within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and Science, the inspectorate (SITE) belongs to the Department of High Inspection and Co-ordination. This service is composed of the Central Inspection Service, whose task it is to co-ordinate the inspection at the central level, and the Provincial Inspection Services, whose task it is to inspect the schools within a given province.

The Provincial Inspection Services, incorporated in the corresponding provincial directorate, are made up of a head inspector and a variable number of educational inspectors. To carry out their functions, these services are grouped into inspection teams, comprising an inspector-co-ordinator and a group of inspectors of inter-level character. Each team works within a demarcated area. The number of such areas within a province is determined by the school structure, the number of existing schools and the number of inspectors available.

The provincial inspectors' main role is to monitor the observance of current laws on education, both in state and private schools; to advise the school community (teachers, parents, students, administration) on those aspects which favour the qualitative improvement of teaching; to make a technical-pedagogical evaluation of educational performance in the schools; to take part in the study of educational needs; to foster, advise and promote the

teaching renovation and implement educational reform; to participate in teacher development; to carry out studies and to co-ordinate activities and programmes; to act as a channel for the instructions and directives from the educational authorities to the schools and the proposals from these schools to the authorities.

These functions are fixed each year in a plan of action of the inspectorate of education in order to establish the work of every inspection team during each academic year. Thus, for example, in the plan for the school year 1992/93, the task of inspecting was to have a threefold aim: the attention and dedication to the starting of the academic year in every school; special attention to schools which, in that year, were beginning the implementation of primary education, as well as those schools which were anticipating other levels of the new education system; and, finally, the monitoring of every school which, through experimental programmes, training processes and innovative experiments, was getting ready to become incorporated into this new ruling.

Of all the actions envisaged in the plan, particularly outstanding is the monitoring of the drawing up of curricular projects in every primary school, as well as in those schools which are preparing for secondary education, by supporting the bodies and persons involved in its design, the correction of those aspects which must be corrected and the supervision of the implementation process. The plan also gave great importance to the gradual implementation of the plan for school evaluation mentioned above.

For the effective development of their functions, inspectors are given two basic powers. The first is the possibility to visit both state and private schools. These visits, together with the reports that result, make up the usual work of the inspectors. The second power is the ability to obtain the administrative and academic documentation that they may need. For this purpose, they are authorised to obtain from every school and from the different services of the Ministry of Education and Science all reports, documents and background information they may require.

7. School staff

The staff of the secondary schools is made up of teachers and administrative and services personnel. In addition to their teaching tasks, teachers carry out other specific tasks, among which we could highlight membership of governing bodies of the school in which they work, or tutorship activities, to mention but two examples.

Access of teachers to non-educational functions is through very different channels according to the activity involved. To act as head or as teachers' rep-

resentative on the school council, they must be voted into office; membership of the teachers' senate and tutorship are compulsory functions for all teaching staff; whilst acting as an adviser, researcher, inspector or other service of the Ministry of Education and Science, they must be selected according to merit.

Management teams

The management team of state secondary schools is made up of the head, the secretary and the director of studies, all of whom are elected every three years from the teachers of the school; their additional roles entail a reduction in their number of teaching hours. The head is a teacher elected by the school council; they must be definitively assigned to the school, they must have belonged to the school for at least a year, and they must have at least three years' teaching experience; they are the school's highest authority. A head teacher's role involves the following tasks: to act as head of staff, to represent the school officially, to direct and co-ordinate all the activities of the school according to existing regulations and to implement the agreements of the associated bodies which fall under their area of competence. The secretary and the director of studies must also be teachers definitively assigned to the school, and they are also elected by the school council, on a proposal from the head. The secretary is in charge of the administrative, economic and bureaucratic activities of the school, while the director of studies' role is limited almost exclusively to the academic and educational management of the school.

As for private direct grant schools, the LODE only states as necessary the existence of the school head, who will be appointed on the agreement of the school proprietor and the school council; they must be one of the schools' teachers, they must have been with the school for at least one year or they must have three years' teaching experience in another school belonging to the same proprietorship. In private EGB schools (primary education), BUP (secondary education) and VT (vocational training) not financed with state funds, the law only specifies the existence of a head, a deputy head and a director of studies; these charges are considered as functional temporary categories for the teaching staff and may be covered freely by the school proprietor.

Teachers

Initial training

To act as a teacher in EGB upper grades, the qualification required is the same one as that for the previous grades: *Diplomado en Escuelas Universitarias de*

Formación de Profesorado de EGB (a three-year degree at a university school for EGB teacher training). However, the new stage of compulsory secondary education ends the current set-up in lower secondary education, increasing the qualification required for those who teach students aged 12 to 14 years.

The LOGSE requires all secondary education teachers to have the same qualification, which is that previously required for teachers of intermediate education: to have passed higher education at a faculty or higher technical school, that is, to be a graduate, architect or engineer (qualifications obtained after five or six years of studies) and, furthermore, to be in possession of the teaching aptitude certificate (CAP). Up to now, the course to obtain this CAP lasted three months; now, as the result of the LOGSE, it will last an academic year, as a minimum. This fact, together with the growing difficulties qualified people are facing in finding a job, has resulted, in recent years, in an increase in the number of people who wish to obtain this certificate. In certain areas and subjects of vocational training, teachers may have other qualifications (generally a three year degree) related to those areas and subjects.

Continuous training

The continuous training of teachers is considered to be a basic factor in the improvement of educational quality. Efforts are being directed both towards increasing the training offered by state administrations as well to meeting the demand from teachers. Although the strategies set by different administrations to encourage continuous training have been somewhat different, all these administrations have considered this question an important one.

Teacher training programmes generally aim to bring plans into line with the requirements derived from the implementation of the LOGSE. In state schools, the training model is based on the diversification of strategies and training options available, and on the establishment of a network of institutions (teaching centres or CEPs) which are so close to schools that they can respond to teachers' real needs. As of 1984, both the Ministry of Education and Science (MEC) and most of the Autonomous Regions with full competence in education started a model of training based on these centres.

Thus, during the last few years, the number of CEPs has notably increased, and so have proposals for teacher training courses, while teachers' participation has been encouraged with grants and with a reduction in teaching hours. During the school year 1990/91, a total of 36 383 secondary teachers were recorded as having participated in such ongoing training activities organised by the CEPs in the territory under the auspices of the ministry. Table 10 shows this participation classified according to activity type.

Table 10: Participation among secondary education teachers in CEP continuous training activities

Modalities	Number of teachers
In-school training programmes	1 896
Courses lasting more than 50 hours	5 372
Courses lasting between 20 and 49 hours	13 135
Courses lasting under 20 hours	2 356
Working groups	3 543
Continuous seminars	3 685
Conferences	5 016
Other activities	1 380
Total	36 383

Source: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1992). *Memoria de actividades de Formación Permanente del Profesorado. Curso 1990-91*. Madrid, MEC.

In addition to CEPs, there are many diverse private and state institutions which offer continuous teacher training activities. Such institutions include: state universities, which develop both traditional and distance activities through independent courses or specialisation programmes; the so-called teaching renovation movements, extended during the 1970s which mobilised Spanish teachers into fighting for changes in the educational system during the period of democratic transition, and who now continue their efforts for renovation; some private school associations, which have created their own training channels; unions and professional associations; and certain teachers groups organised within scientific associations. Many of these institutions have signed agreements with the Ministry of Education and Science, by virtue of which their activities are recognised and/or financed.

Access to the teaching posts

To become a teacher in a state school, in addition to the degree required to work as a teacher in any school (whether state or private), there is a requirement to pass a selection procedure which takes the form of a competitive examination. The Ministry of Education and Science is responsible for this examination within its area of administrative influence, and the Autonomous Regions with competence in education are responsible within their area. The examination must be public. Although the Autonomous Regions have the power to offer places within their area, the admissions system is governed by the same legislation as the rest of the country. The selection procedure for state teaching posts has very recently been reformed in an attempt to make it fairer, since, as the result of the continued increase in the number of can-

didates and the reduction in the number of places offered, the situation occurred in which selection was impossible even with a very high mark at the examination stage. Places are offered every year at different levels and areas of the education system, depending on vacancies and the anticipated needs. Given the decrease in population registered over the last few years and in spite of full enrolment even beyond the compulsory stage, the number of places offered has been notably reduced during the last few years. The implementation of the LOGSE may bring a demand for teachers with new qualifications in secondary education, though it cannot be anticipated that there will be a great need for new places.

State school teachers are mostly civil servants and a small proportion may be under temporary contracts. They are governed by the statutory order of the state's civil service and, if they work in Autonomous Regions with their own competence, by the by-laws of these regions.

In the private sector it is not necessary to pass an examination to work as a teacher. Such teachers are subject to the regulations covering employment contracts, and to the consent of both parties, established in the job contract. This means that the relation and the selection procedure is similar to that in other employment.

Tasks

In state secondary schools, teachers have a weekly timetable of thirty-seven-and-a-half hours, like other civil servants. For thirty of these hours, the teacher must be present in the school. Between eighteen and twenty-one hours are dedicated to direct student teaching, and the rest intended for class preparation, tutorship and other duties associated with the role of teachers (such as attendance of staff meetings of the senate, the teaching departments or the school committees). The remaining seven-and-a-half hours can be used freely, and the teacher can use them for training courses or any other complementary teaching activity. In private schools, the weekly timetable is thirty-two hours, and for all of these hours it is compulsory for the teacher to be present at the school.

A teachers' official period of vacation is the same in both the state and the private sector: one month in summer plus the Easter and Christmas holidays set for the students. Nevertheless, in practice, teachers in state schools and in most private schools enjoy a two month vacation in summer.

Secondary teachers who are civil servants may perform several tasks, in addition to the strictly educational ones. These tasks bring (or may bring) with them some financial recompense, the amount of which varies according to

the tasks. These mainly include membership of the school council and/or management team (head teacher, secretary or director of studies); the carrying out of inspection tasks, for which selection is made by open competitions; or work on government committees, which may be of very different kinds and for which selection is usually made on the basis of merit.

Salary and working conditions

Teachers in state schools are civil servants, whereas teachers in private schools have the status of employees of a private company, which generally means that there are differences concerning rights and duties.

The salaries of civil servants in education are established annually by the general state budget. These wages are made up of a base salary, three-yearly bonuses, two extra payments and complementary remuneration, as is also the case for other civil servants. An average secondary teacher's gross monthly salary amounts to about 200 000 pesetas. Temporary staff have the same wages, apart from the three-yearly bonuses.

As for secondary teachers in private schools, their wages are made up of a basic salary and some complementary payments (for quality of work, seniority and transport), three-yearly bonuses and three extra payments. All other things being equal, a private school teacher gets a lower wage and has to teach for a greater number of hours than a state school teacher. A private school teacher's average salary amounts to about 150 000 pesetas a month.

Other staff

In secondary schools there are also other staff in charge of administrative tasks and other non-educational services. The salary and working conditions of these staff are governed by the corresponding collective agreements (administrative staff, assistant staff, porters, etc.).

8. The European dimension

Since Spain became part of the European Union it has been making a committed effort to introduce a European dimension into its education system. The LOGSE, in particular, is proposing changes to bring the Spanish education system closer to the European one. These changes include a re-organisation of the different educational stages in order to bring the Spanish system into line with the systems existing in other member states. The extension of compulsory schooling to the age of 16, the new structure of compulsory secondary education and the *Bachillerato* and the re-organisation of vocational training are just some of these changes.

In the same way, the curricular development of geography, history, social sciences, philosophy, literature, economics and arts education is specifically aimed at the introduction of this European dimension, along with the inclusion of complementary subjects such as education on health, peace or the environment.

Also to be mentioned are the measures referring to the study of modern languages. In this respect, in the new structure, a modern language will be studied from the age of 8, which means a three-year advance as compared with the current system; also, during post-compulsory education, students will have the possibility of learning a second foreign language (voluntarily).

In addition, the Ministry of Education and Science and the Autonomous Regions with full competence in educational questions have made a considerable effort to create, encourage and carry out activities, aimed at both pupils and teachers in order to foster a European dimension in education. The activities carried out by these governments in the field of secondary education include:

– the preparation of teaching materials such as *Cuadernos educativos* (educational texts), *Carpeta Europa* (Europe file), *Europa en cifras* (Europe in figures), *Vivir y trabajar en Europa* (Living and working in Europe), *En expectativa* (In expectation), *Europa en la escuela* (Europe at school), *Euskal-Herria en la Comunidad Europea* (The Basque Country in the European Community), *Ser ciudadano europeo* (To be a European citizen), *Europa, asunto joven* (Europe, a matter of youth), *Catalunya en Europa* (Catalonia in Europe), the magazine *Eurogeo*, and other guides called *Euroguías* (Euroguides), as well as audiovisual materials;

– the exchange of Spanish teachers and students with teachers and students from different EU countries;

– a set of complementary measures, such as the financing of innovative projects to strengthen the European dimension, the participation in the Jet programme, the creation of European documentation centres in twenty Spanish cities, the celebration of Europe Day, etc.

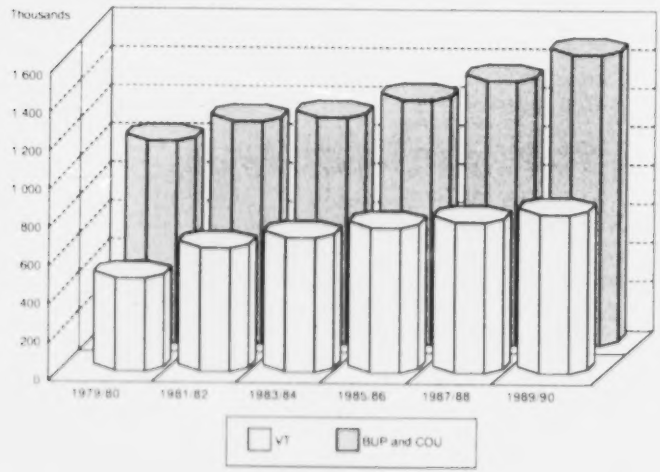
Finally, it must be stressed that, taking into account the importance of teacher training, the educational authorities have organised several workshops and courses on the European dimension, aimed at educational staff. Thus, for instance, Spain has actively participated in the European Union's ARION programme, in which a great number of teachers have taken part.

III. Effectiveness and performance in secondary education

1. Student flows (1970-90)

During the last twenty years, the number of students in secondary education studies has undergone continuous growth (Table 2, Appendix 1). However, schooling for all has only been achieved during the period of compulsory education, that is, during the upper grades of EGB, whereas from the age of 15 onwards (the age of EGB completion) the schooling rate drops from 85% at 16 to 50% at 18. Logically, in future years, due to the extending of compulsory schooling to the age of 16, and to the progressive increase in student numbers in secondary education, schooling rates for these ages will increase.

Figure 2: Changes in registration at BUP, COU and vocational training levels (1979/80 – 1989/90)



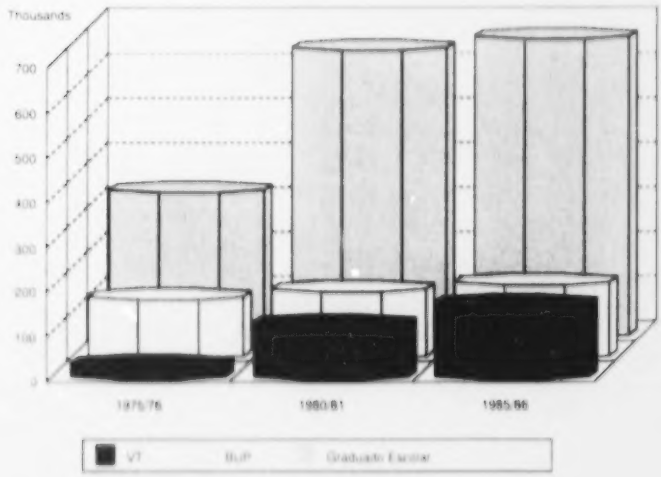
64

On the other hand, Figure 2 shows how the option largely preferred within upper secondary education is the *Bachillerato*, though the percentage increase of vocational training is larger than that for BUP and COU.

2. Changes in the number of pupils holding a secondary education certificate

Along with the increase in the number of secondary education students during the last few years, an increase in the number of qualified school-leavers has also taken place. Table 13, Appendix 1, shows the changes in students finishing secondary studies. During lower secondary (upper grades of EGB) a distinction can be made between those who finish their studies successfully (thus obtaining the *Graduado Escolar* – Basic Education Certificate) and those who do not complete their studies successfully (who receive an School Attendance Certificate). As for vocational training, the number of qualified school-leavers both from VT at initial level and VT at intermediate level is indicated.

Figure 3: Changes in the number of pupils holding the secondary education certificate



1 Basic Education Certificate

When considering the number of pupils registered at the beginning of each level and the percentage of those who finish their studies in the time allotted, we can see that the percentage drops as we advance towards upper levels. In EGB upper grades, approximately 90% of the pupils finish their studies in three years (73% obtain the Basic Education Certificate and the remaining 27% receive just the School Attendance Certificate), in BUP and COU, this percentage drops to 50%. Something similar happens in Vocational Training, where almost 74% of pupils who start VTI obtain an assistant technician qualification in two years, whilst just 55% of the pupils who start these studies obtain a senior technician qualification in the time allotted.

3. Drop-out and repetition rates

One of the rates most widely used to ascertain secondary education results is the drop-out percentage throughout the different courses. EGB is a compulsory stage, which means that, during that stage, there is no official drop-out rate. As for repetition, since the establishment, in 1981, of EGB grade structures, the traditional concept of "grade repetition" has legally disappeared. Officially, it is at the end of each grade when the question is decided as to whether pupils who have not achieved the minimum objective should stay on in that grade for another year. Nevertheless, statistical data still recognises the persistence of this practice which affects a certain number of pupils.

The highest rate of repetition is found in the final years of each course and during the upper grades, where more stringent academic demands seem to be reflected in the high repeater percentages. A feature which must be stressed is the lower repetition rate among girls (in every course), a fact which has been observed for some time in most developed countries. The differences between state and private schools should also be pointed out. In both sexes and in every grade, the percentage of repeaters is lower in private schools.

In 1988, the inspectorate produced a report on drop-out rates during upper secondary education (BUP and vocational training), it studied the pupils in the schools under the competence of the Ministry of Education and Science, for the school year 1986/87. The most noteworthy results of this study were the following:

- the overall drop-out rate in BUP and COU is 7%;

- the drop-out rates during the first and second year of BUP are 5,1% and 4,8%, respectively;

- the highest drop-out rate corresponds to the third year of BUP, where one in every nine registered pupils (11,4%) abandons their studies. This percent-

age may be due, in part, to the fact that pupils who pass the third year but do not register in COU are recorded as drop-outs, bearing in mind that pupils who complete the *Bachillerato* and are not going to study at university do not have to attend the COU;

– it should be stressed that the COU drop-out rate (8,9%) refers to those pupils who abandon their studies after failing the COU.

Table 11 shows some data on BUP and COU pupils assessment which, although obtained from a representative sample of pupils from the schools directly managed by the Ministry of Education and Science, give a general indication of failure and drop-out rates at this level.

As we can see, the percentage of pupils who pass every subject increases significantly as students move up through BUP and COU, and this percentage is higher, in every grade, in private schools. The greatest difference is to be found in the first year of BUP

If we consider the number of students who are promoted to the next grade, a significant increase can be observed in the third year of BUP (84,6% as compared to 78,9% in the first year and 79,8% in the second year). In COU, the percentage of students who are promoted decreases to 72,4% but, in analysing this statistic (as with the repetition rate) it must be taken into account that this is a final year grade, in which the only students who are promoted are those who pass every subject, whereas in BUP, pupils may be promoted, even though they have to re-sit one or two subjects. In every grade, the percentage of pupils who are promoted is significantly higher in private schools.

As to the failure to be promoted, it must be stressed that in state schools the grade with the highest failure rate is the first year of BUP, whereas in private schools these rates correspond to the second year of BUP.

These data seem to indicate the existence of a selection process throughout BUP and COU, which result in a decrease of the school failure rate as students move up through the grades.

A significant difference in repetition can be observed between private and state schools, which can be partially explained by the fact that, frequently, the most problematic pupils are transferred from private to state schools. As for gender, repetition rates are higher among males than among females, at every grade and independently of the type of school.

Regarding COU, the total percentage of repeaters is much higher than in the three years of BUP, both overall and in state schools, though not in private schools. This could be due to the fact that in COU every student who has to

resit any subject must repeat the course, whereas in BUP, students who have to resit one or two subjects are not considered as repeaters, because they can move up to the following course. In private schools, the repetition rate in COU is the same one as in the second year of BUP, a fact which may have a number of different explanations.

Table 11: Assessment of BUP and COU students according to the type of school (percentages (1987/88)[1]

Year	Passed all subjects			Promoted to next grade			Not promoted		
	State	Private	Total	State	Private	Total	State	Private	Total
First	48	72	56	73	91	79	27	9	21
Second	50	66	56	75	88	80	25	11	20
Third	55	68	60	81	90	85	19	10	15
Totals BUP	51	69	57	76	89	81	24	10	19
COU	67	81	72	67	81	72	32	19	28
Totals for BUP & COU	54	71	60	74	88	79	26	12	21

1. MEC area

Source: Servicio de Inspección Técnica de Educación (1990): *Resultados de la evaluación de alumnos en EGB, FP y BUP-COU Curso 1987-88*. Madrid, MEC.

Regarding vocational training, the most relevant results of the previously mentioned study are the following:

– the drop-out rate in vocational training is 20,4% (one in every five students, approximately). The rate for VT at the initial level (22,3%) is significantly higher than the rate for VT at the intermediate level (17,7%);

– the high drop-out rate in the first year of VT at the initial level (24,0%) must be stressed. This rate means that one in every four students registered in this course abandons their studies;

– in every grade, most of the dropping out occurs at the end of the academic year, after the final assessment;

– in vocational training at the initial level, the drop-out rate is higher in state schools (25,0%) that in private schools (18,5%);

– in vocational training at the intermediate level, the differences between the drop-out rate in state schools and in private schools are not statistically significant.

If we take the number of repeaters as an indicator of school failure, the highest percentage appears in final year grades and, more precisely, the highest rate corresponds to the second year of VT I. A significant difference can be observed between the number of pupils who repeat one grade or another in private or state schools: this number is much higher in state schools, a difference of up to 5 percentage points in vocational training at initial level.

Table 12: Assessment of BUP and COU students according to the type of school (percentages (1987/88))

Level & year	Passed all subjects			Promoted to next grade[1]			Not promoted		
	State	Private	Total	State	Private	Total	State	Private	Total
VT I									
First	29	40	33	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Second	50	57	53	50	57	53	50	43	47
Overall VT I	38	48	42	79	79	79	21	21	21
Admitted	57	65	61	57	65	61	43	35	39
VT II									
General System									
1st	52	68	58	72	90	79	28	10	21
2nd	78	85	81	78	85	81	22	15	19
General VT II	64	77	69	74	87	80	26	13	20
Specialised System									
1st	38	51	42	64	79	68	36	21	32
2nd	41	55	47	69	79	72	31	21	28
3rd	68	75	70	68	75	70	32	25	29
Special VT II	48	61	52	67	78	70	33	32	30

1. Regarding moving up a course within VT, at intermediate level, no student may advance to the next course if they have to re-sit more than two subjects.
2. Current legislation states that, within VT at initial level, students may move up from first to second year automatically.

Source: Servicio de Inspección Técnica de Educación (1990): *Resultados de la evaluación de alumnos en EGB, FP y BUP-COU Curso 1987-88*. Madrid, MEC.

As the table shows, the percentage of vocational training students who pass every subject, as well as that of students who are promoted, is always higher in private schools, independent of level or grade. On the other side, the percentage of VT students who do not move up is always higher in state schools than in private ones, independent of level or grade.

69

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In all cases, there is a clear improvement of the results obtained by the students as they move up grades through vocational training. This fact bear witness to the selection process among students, independent of the kind of education they have chosen.

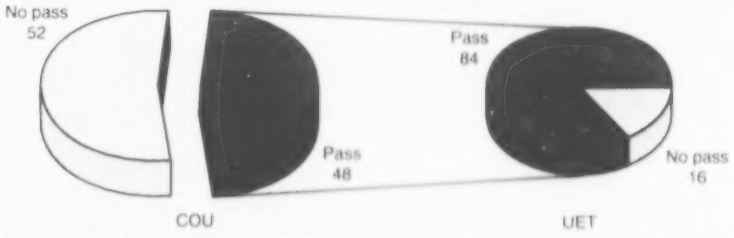
4. Admission to higher education

In the academic year 1990/91, 265 094 pupils started higher or university studies. This may seem a very high figure if compared to the number of students who finish secondary education, but we must take into account other factors if we want to understand how access was gained to university by these students, and in order to establish how many students have not been able to register.

The first factor to consider is students' age. Of the students who register for the first year of higher education only 60% are about 18 years, that is, the age established for entering university. But if we add to these those who repeat and those who enter at a later stage, we can see that 30% are young people aged between 19 and 25, whereas 10% of the students who enter university every year are adults.

A second factor that completes the above information, is the classification of students entering university according to their entrance qualifications.

Figure 4: Percentage distribution of students registered at university, classified according to their entrance qualifications (1990/91)



Source: Consejo de Universidades (1992). *Anuario de estadística universitaria 1991*. Madrid, MEC.

According to data for the 1988/89 school year, the percentage of students registered in COU who sit the university entrance test at the first sitting (June) is 54,4%. Of those who sit the exam, 84,4% pass it. Thus, we can assert that approximately 51,7% of students registered in COU pass the university entrance test in June. To this number we must add those who pass the exam at a second or later date.

70

Table 13: Subject breakdown according to studies attained and job situation (1990)

Qualifications	Job situation								
	Overall	Non-working population		Working population		Unemployed		Employed	
	N	N	%[1]	N	%[1]	N	%[2]	N	%[2]
No studies	6 650 900	5 016 800	75,43	1 634 100	24,57	255 600	15,64	1 378 500	84,36
Primary level	11 704 900	6 095 100	52,07	5 609 800	47,93	761 100	13,57	4 348 700	77,52
BUP & COU	8 014 100	3 240 900	40,44	4 773 200	59,56	958 400	20,08	3 814 800	79,92
VT	1 750 100	486 400	27,79	1 263 700	72,21	240 700	19,05	1 022 900	80,94
3-Year University	1 315 800	421 700	32,05	894 100	67,95	103 800	11,61	790 300	88,39
5-Year University	1 060 200	191 000	18,02	869 100	81,98	104 700	12,05	764 300	87,95
Overall > 16 Yrs	30 496 000	15 451 900	50,67	15 044 100	49,33	2 424 300	16,11	12 619 800	83,89

1. Percentage of population as a whole
2. Percentage of working population as a whole

Source: Internal; taken from the Instituto Nacional de Estadística *(1991): Encuesta de Población Activa. Resultados Detallados, cuarto trimestre 1990.* Madrid, INE.

5. Job situation of qualified school-leavers

The table above shows the distribution of the Spanish adult population (over the age of 16) who have completed and passed secondary education according to their job situation.

The job situation of people who have completed and passed secondary education is very different according to the kind of studies completed. Those whose maximum level of studies is *Bachillerato* are more frequently unemployed than those who have completed vocational training. This may be explained by the fact that in our country, as in most European countries, *Bachillerato* (or equivalent) studies are aimed basically at preparing students for higher education, and most students are not considered to be part of the working population. In the same way, the percentage of employment is higher for those who have completed vocational training than for those who have completed BUP and COU, because VT prepares students for a definite profession.

IV. Challenges, problems and perspectives

The greatest challenge which the Spanish education system must face during the next few years is that of reform implementation. The forecasts are that the progressive implementation of the LOGSE will not be complete until the year 2000. Thus, the profound changes that it entails now present a twofold challenge: to achieve its correct implementation and to make certain that the reform attains its proposed objectives.

This reform has arisen from the need to answer a series of problems and maladjustments in the education system. The design of the education system in force until the approval of the LOGSE dates from 1970. During the last two decades important changes have taken place in social, cultural and political life, which have made necessary an overhaul of the entire system. Of these changes, we can stress a new political situation, with a Constitution which is opening up new paths to the understanding of education; the need from society's viewpoint for an education of both greater length and of greater quality; the integration of Spanish society into the European Union, which has brought with it the goals of competitiveness, mobility and free movement; or the rapid developments in knowledge and in productive and cultural processes.

The following is a summary of the problems of the system in its older form, which directly affect secondary education, and which the new law aims to solve.

– in the upper grades of EGB, pupils are overburdened by heavy programmes which are unattractive to them, and this results in an excessive number of repetitions; a significant proportion of pupils do not obtain the certificate which is proof of having completed their studies successfully;

– The fact that, at the end of EGB, pupils may get two different qualifications – Basic Education Certificate and School Attendance Certificate – splits the education system into two parallel paths from that moment on – *Bachillerato* and vocational training – which makes it difficult to achieve the principle of equal opportunities;

– the overly academic nature of *Bachillerato* turns it into a mere step on the way to university studies; it becomes a stage which does not exist in its own right for the practical purposes of gaining employment;

– as for COU, it does not achieve the orientation function for which it was originally intended, and it has not become part of university education, as envisaged in the LGE; in fact, it has become another part of the *Bachillerato* course, and one dislodged by preparation for the University Entrance Test;

– insufficient social esteem for vocational training has turned it into a second rate educational option;

– existing vocational training at the initial level is not effective, and its students have high failure rates; moreover, in many cases it is too far removed from the realities of the productive system.

With the LOGSE, a new future is dawning in the Spanish education system, which continues mobilising good will and is supported by broad sectors of Spanish society, conscious of the need to continue the improvement of its education system. Now every effort is being channelled into achieving the success of the reform on which we have embarked. This new concept of education will require solid training, both at the outset and on a permanent basis, of the teaching profession, as well as teaching materials which meet the needs of the new curricula, enough resources to cope with real situations and, most of all, social endeavour committed to the improvement of education.

Appendix 1: Statistics

Table 1: Evolution of the number of schools by educational level and ownership

Academic year	EGB		BUP and COU		VT	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
1979/80			956	1 469	722	1 315
1980/81			1 004	1 441	864	1 278
1981/82			1 032	1 456	936	1 387
1982/83	14 779	5 218	1 033	1 462	994	1 372
1983/84	14 026	5 196	1 073	1 474	978	1 419
1984/85	14 785	5 162	1 110	1 485	1 043	1 291
1985/86	14 613	4 863	1 246	1 389	1 030	1 218
1986/87	14 577	4 716	1 302	1 357	1 073	1 121
1987/88	14 468	4 565	1 420	1 363	1 081	1 149
1988/89	15 003	4 774	1 526	1 133	1 157	1 096
1989/90	14 708	4 561	1 624	1 395	1 146	1 114

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid. Consejo de Universidades (1992). *Anuario de estadística universitaria 1991*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 2: Evolution of the number of pupils according to educational level[1]

Academic year	EGB	BUP/COU	VT
1979/80	5 606 850	1 037 788	515 119
1980/81	5 606 452	1 091 197	558 271
1981/82	5 629 874	1 119 095	628 368
1982/83	5 633 518	1 117 600	650 770
1983/84	5 633 009	1 142 308	695 480
1984/85	5 640 938	1 182 154	726 000
1985/86	5 594 285	1 238 874	738 340
1986/87	5 575 719	1 278 269	751 995
1987/88	5 398 095	1 355 278	759 796
1988/89	5 263 518	1 425 777	781 748
1989/90	5 080 991	1 470 816	817 099

1. From the 1985/86 academic year when the experimental plan for *Enseñanzas Medias* is initiated, the pupils of this plan are included in the figures given for BUP and COU levels. This plan entails the experimentation of a first cycle of secondary education, common to all students including all pupils up to 16.

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid. Consejo de Universidades (1992): *Anuario de estadística universitaria 1991*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 3: Schooling rates – 1980/81 academic year

Age	EGB	BUP-COU	VT	Total
12	100.00			100.00
13	94.17			94.17
14	31.97	33.15	18.23	83.35
15	8.11	39.00	21.41	68.52
16	0.37	35.67	15.78	51.82
17		34.19	11.88	46.07
18		15.33	8.64	23.97
19		6.50	4.99	11.49
20		6.34	6.27	12.61

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Curso 1980-81*. INE, Madrid.

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76

Table 4: Schooling rates – 1985/86 academic year

Age	EGB	BUP-COU	VT	Total
12	100,00			100,00
13	99,09			99,09
14	32,54	41,36	16,24	90,14
15	10,45	43,25	22,45	76,15
16		39,68	20,56	60,24
17		36,22	16,61	52,83
18		14,20	13,14	27,34
19		6,48	7,82	14,30

Source: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1988): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Curso 1985-86*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 5: Schooling rates – 1989/90 academic year

Age	EGB	BUP-COU	VT	Total
12	100,00			100,00
13	100,00			100,00
14	33,73	47,45	14,36	98,74
15	9,78	50,58	22,51	85,79
16		46,59	21,52	70,27
17		42,34	17,89	61,77
18		17,16	15,36	33,06
19		8,10	10,28	18,57

Source: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1993): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 6: Evolution of the number of teachers according to educational level

Academic year	EGB	BUP & COU	VT
1979/80	205 550	63 645	33 583
1980/81	211 074	66 160	36 556
1981/82	214 391	67 931	40 190
1982/83	216 047	69 768	42 174
1983/84	219 023	71 256	45 339
1984/85	221 071	73 388	47 838
1985/86	224 096	75 550	49 408
1986/87	221 830	75 629	51 062
1987/88	220 047	81 498	52 521
1988/89	219 625	87 157	55 309
1989/90	228 999	92 218	59 559

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid. Consejo de Universidades (1992). *Anuario de estadística universitaria 1991*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 7: Evolution of the number of pupils at EGB level – by school ownership and sex

Academic year	State owned		Privately owned	
	Women	Total	Women	Total
1979/80	1 644 263	3 528 243	1 096 515	2 078 607
1980/81	1 654 703	3 549 836	1 085 021	2 056 616
1981/82	1 659 747	3 574 944	1 082 084	2 054 930
1982/83	1 663 266	3 582 438	1 073 325	2 051 080
1983/84	1 668 444	3 597 190	1 063 799	2 035 819
1984/85	1 677 942	3 623 832	1 053 926	2 017 106
1985/86	1 680 907	3 621 238	1 026 412	1 973 047
1986/87	1 689 645	3 597 272	1 019 701	1 978 247
1987/88	1 647 387	3 542 055	959 620	1 856 040
1988/89	1 598 648	3 432 743	943 679	1 830 775
1989/90	1 545 299	3 314 759	908 234	1 766 232

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 8: Evolution of the number of teachers at EGB – by school ownership and sex

Academic year	State owned		Privately owned	
	Women	Total	Women	Total
1979/80	70 332	128 718	47 535	76 832
1980/81	72 432	130 954	50 897	80 120
1981/82	73 986	133 576	51 274	80 815
1982/83	76 645	136 012	51 371	80 035
1983/84	80 268	140 004	51 210	79 019
1984/85	83 425	143 346	50 640	77 725
1985/86	86 129	146 693	50 275	77 403
1986/87	92 406	148 505	48 159	73 325
1987/88	88 357	149 115	46 615	70 932
1988/89	84 189	148 267	45 271	71 358
1989/90	82 024	138 389	38 129	58 226

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 9: Evolution of the number of pupils at BUP and COU levels – by school ownership and sex

Academic year	State owned		Privately owned	
	Women	Total	Women	Total
1979/80	377 614	682 522	181 016	373 266
1980/81	397 879	718 190	185 776	373 007
1981/82	408 716	736 987	194 723	387 342
1982/83	409 157	733 582	192 825	384 018
1983/84	421 914	757 885	193 633	384 423
1984/85	437 321	789 173	198 541	392 981
1985/86	460 876	838 770	196.687	391 259
1986/87	472 369	874 674	198 784	391 220
1987/88	522 970	958 917	198 380	396 361
1988/89	552 982	1 005 184	214 382	420 593
1989/90	577 411	1 048 279	220 531	422 537

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid.

79

Table 10: Evolution of the number of teachers at BUP and COU levels – by school ownership and sex

Academic year	State owned		Privately owned	
	Women	Total	Women	Total
1979/80	18 467	38 137	11 278	25 508
1980/81	20 114	41 454	11 085	24 706
1981/82	20 791	42 863	11 289	25 068
1982/83	21 566	44 706	11 492	25 060
1983/84	22 545	46 136	11 598	25 120
1984/85	23 568	48 171	11 731	25 217
1985/86	25 320	51 218	11 446	24 332
1986/87	26 595	51 757	11 287	23 872
1987/88	30 185	57 736	11 315	23 762
1988/89	33 366	62 011	12 350	25 146
1989/90	37 461	66 938	12 130	25 280

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 11: Evolution of the number of pupils at FP level – by school ownership and sex

Academic year	State owned		Privately owned	
	Women	Total	Women	Total
1979/80	76 585	253 302	113 026	261 817
1980/81	92 527	301 673	119 385	257 135
1981/82	108 119	345 809	135 720	273 281
1982/83	113 792	362 692	148 891	288 078
1983/84	122 397	377 378	164 150	317 802
1984/85	141 231	416 735	162 209	309 265
1985/86	151 828	426 822	156 283	299 427
1986/87	172 470	463 255	136 933	270 931
1987/88	202 043	489 877	139 267	269 919
1988/89	201 470	516 361	137 598	265 387
1989/90	223 958	552 805	135 203	264 294

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93). *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid.

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Table 12: Evolution of the number of teachers at FP level – by school ownership and sex

Academic year	State owned		Privately owned	
	Women	Total	Women	Total
1979/80	3 744	15 677	5 977	17 906
1980/81	4 803	19 653	6 311	16 903
1981/82	5 848	23 036	6 538	17 154
1982/83	6 544	25 118	6 676	17 056
1983/84	7 499	27 169	7 003	18 170
1984/85	8 935	31 041	6 542	16 797
1985/86	10 051	33 220	6 531	16 188
1986/87	12 185	36 297	6 111	14 765
1987/88	13 901	37 535	6 388	14 986
1988/89	15 363	40 337	6 656	14 972
1989/90	17 551	44 786	6 715	14 773

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (1982-85): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Varios cursos*. INE, Madrid. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (1986-93): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles de Preescolar, General Básica y EE. Medias. Varios cursos*. MEC, Madrid.

Table 13: Evolution of the number of pupils holding a secondary education certificate

Qualifications	Academic years		
	1975/76	1980/81	1985/86
Second stage of EGB	519 325	648 864	679 574
Certificate of Basic Education	338 109	424 747	492 036
Certificate of School Attendance	181 216	224 117	187 538
BUP and COU	132 836	153 200	161 057
Vocational training	28 217	115 772	156 037
VT I	21 785	89 432	101 882
VT II	6 432	26 340	54 155

Source: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (several years): *Estadística de la Enseñanza en España. Niveles no universitarios*. Madrid, MEC.

Appendix 2: Legislative index

I. General legal basis

II. Educational policy

1. State participation bodies

2. Centres

3. Admission of pupils

III. Curriculum organisation

1. Schedule for the implementation of the LOGSE

2. Compulsory secondary education

3. Bachillerato

4. Vocational training

IV. Distance education, adult education and inequality compensation

V. Education for special needs

VI. Educational guidance and evaluation of the system

VII. Teachers

I. General legal basis

Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.

Constitucion española, aprobada por las Cortes en las sesiones plenarias del Congreso de los Diputados y del Senado celebrados el 31 de octubre de 1978. Ratificada por el pueblo español en el referéndum de 6 de diciembre de 1978. Sancionada por Su Majestad el Rey ante las Cortes el 27 de diciembre de 1978.

Ley orgánica 11/1983, de 25 de Agosto, de Reforma Universitaria (L.R.U.).

Ley orgánica 8/1985, de 3 de julio, reguladora del Derecho de Educación (L.O.D.E.).

Ley orgánica 1/1990, de 3 de octubre, de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo (LOGSE).

II. Educational policy

1. State participation bodies

Real decreto 552/1985, de 2 de abril, por el que se aprueba el Reglamento del Consejo de Universidades.

Real decreto 2378/1985, de 18 de diciembre, por el que se regula el Consejo Escolar del Estado.

Ley 1/1986, de 7 de enero, por la que se crea el Consejo General de la Formación Profesional.

2. Centres

Real decreto 2376/1985, de 18 de diciembre, por el que se aprueba el Reglamento de los órganos de gobierno de los centros públicos de Educación General Básica, Bachillerato y Formación Profesional.

Orden ministerial de 9 de junio de 1989, por la que se aprueban las instrucciones que regulan la organización y el funcionamiento de los centros docentes de Bachillerato y Formación Profesional, sostenidos con fondos públicos y dependientes del Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.

Real decreto 1004/1991, de 14 de junio, por el que se establecen los requisitos mínimos de los Centros que impartan enseñanzas de régimen general no universitarias.

Real decreto 929/1993, de 18 de junio, por el que se aprueba el Reglamento Orgánico de los Institutos de Educación Secundaria.

3. Admission of pupils

Real decreto 2375/1985, de 18 de diciembre, por el que se establecen los criterios de admisión de alumnos en los centros públicos y privados concertados.

Real decreto 377/1993, de 12 de marzo, por el que se regula el procedimiento de admisión de alumnos en centros sostenidos con fondos públicos de Educación Infantil, Educación Primaria y Educación Secundaria.

Orden de 1 de abril de 1993, por la que se regula el procedimiento de admisión de alumnos en centros sostenidos con fondos públicos de Educación Infantil, Educación Primaria y Educación Secundaria.

III. Curriculum organisation

1. Schedule for the implementation of the LOGSE

Real decreto 986/1991, de 14 de junio, por el que se aprueba el calendario de aplicación de la LOGSE

Orden del 27 de abril de 1992, para la implantación anticipada del Segundo Ciclo de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

Real decreto 535/1993, de 12 de abril, que modifica y completa el R.D. 986/1991, de 14 de junio, por el que se aprueba el calendario de aplicación del nuevo calendario del Sistema Educativo.

2. Compulsory secondary education

Orden ministerial de 6 de agosto de 1971 por las que se establecen las Orientaciones Pedagógicas para el Ciclo Superior de EGB.

Real decreto 1007/1991, de 14 de junio, por el que se establecen las enseñanzas mínimas correspondientes a la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

Real decreto 1345/1991, de 6 de septiembre, por el que se establece el currículo de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

Orden de 12 de noviembre de 1992 sobre evaluación en la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

Orden de 12 de enero de 1993 por la que se regulan los programas de Garantía Social durante el periodo de implantación anticipada del segundo ciclo de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

Orden del 8 de julio de 1993, por la que se dictan instrucciones para la implantación anticipada de enseñanzas de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

3. Bachillerato

Decreto 160/1975 de 23 de enero, que aprueba el Plan de Estudios del Bachillerato.

84

Orden ministerial de 22 de marzo de 1975, por la que se desarrolla el Decreto 160/1975, que concreta el plan de estudios de Bachillerato y se regula el Curso de Orientación Universitaria.

Orden del 4 de junio de 1975, que establece normas sobre evaluación y calificación en Bachillerato.

Orden de 31 de diciembre de 1975 que establece las normas sobre evaluación y calificación en COU

Decreto 2214/1976, de 10 de septiembre, por el que se modifican determinados artículos del Decreto 160/1975, de 23 de enero.

Orden ministerial de 3 de septiembre de 1987 por la que se establece el nuevo plan de estudios de COU

Real decreto 1700/1991, de 29 de noviembre, por el que se establece la estructura del Bachillerato.

Real decreto 1178/1992, de 2 de octubre, por el que se aprueban las enseñanzas mínimas del Bachillerato.

Orden de 12 de noviembre de 1992 por la que se dictan instrucciones para la implantación anticipada del Bachillerato establecido por la LOGSE

Orden de 12 de noviembre de 1992 por la que se regula la evaluación y la calificación de los alumnos que cursan el Bachillerato establecido en la LOGSE

Resolucion de 29 de diciembre de 1992, de la Dirección General de Renovación Pedagógica, por la que se regula el currículo de las materias optativas de Bachillerato establecidas en la Orden de 12 de noviembre de 1992 de implantación anticipada del Bachillerato definido por la LOGSE

4. Vocational training

Orden del 14 de febrero de 1972 en las que se establece las normas para la evaluación continua del rendimiento educativo de los alumnos de FP.

Real decreto 707/1976, de 5 de marzo, sobre ordenación de la Formación Profesional.

Orden ministerial de 5 de agosto de 1976 en las que se establece las normas para la evaluación continua del rendimiento educativo de los alumnos de FP.

Orden de 25 de marzo de 1993, por la que se regula la organización y funcionamiento de los Centros de Formación, Innovación y Desarrollo de la Formación Profesional.

Real decreto 631/1993, de 3 de mayo, por el que se regula el Plan Nacional de Formación e Inserción Profesional.

Real decreto 676/1993, de 7 de mayo, por el que se establecen las directrices generales sobre títulos y las correspondientes enseñanzas mínimas de Formación Profesional.

IV. Distance education, adult education and inequality compensation

Orden ministerial de 14 de febrero de 1974, sobre orientaciones metodológicas en Educación de Adultos.

Orden ministerial de 1 de agosto de 1978, sobre equivalencia de estudios nocturnos y sobre BUP y FP.

Real decreto 1974/1983, de 17 de abril, sobre Educación Compensatoria.

Real decreto 2298/1983, de 28 de julio, por el que se regula el sistema de becas y otras ayudas al estudio de carácter personalizado.

Real decreto 1180/1992, de 2 de octubre, por el que se crea el Centro Nacional para la Innovación y Desarrollo de la Educación a Distancia.

Orden de 24 de febrero de 1993 que establece la estructura orgánica del Centro de Innovación y Desarrollo de la Educación a Distancia.

V. Education for special needs

Ley 13/1982 de 7 de abril de Integración Social del Minusválido.

Real decreto 334/1985, de 6 de marzo, de ordenación de la Educación Especial donde se regula el funcionamiento de los Equipos Multiprofesionales en el marco de la integración de alumnos con necesidades educativas especiales.

Real decreto 969/1986, de 11 de abril, de creación del Centro Nacional de Recursos para la Educación Especial.

VI. Educational guidance and evaluation of the system

Orden ministerial de 31 de julio de 1972, por la que se establecen los servicios de orientación en el Curso de Orientación Universitaria.

Orden ministerial de 30 de abril de 1977, por la que se crean los Servicios de Orientacion Escolar y Vocacional.

Orden ministerial de 9 de septiembre de 1982, por la que se crean los Equipos Multiprofesionales.

Orden ministerial de 28 de septiembre de 1982, por la que se regula el funcionamiento del Instituto de Orientación Educativa y Profesional.

Orden de 9 de diciembre de 1992 por la que se regulan la estructura y funciones de los Equipos de Orientación Educativa y Psicopedagógica.

Real decreto 559/1993, de 16 de abril, por el que se deroga el Decreto 2689/1980, de 21 de noviembre, referente a los Institutos de Orientación Educativa y Profesional, integrándose sus efectivos en los nuevos servicios especializados.

Real decreto 928/1993, de 18 de junio, por el que se regula el Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación.

VII. Teachers

Ley 8/1980, de 10 de marzo, sobre Estatuto de los trabajadores.

Real decreto 229/1981, de 5 de febrero, de Cuerpos de Funcionarios.

Ley 30/1984, de 2 de agosto, de medidas para la Reforma de la Función Pública.

Real decreto 2223/1984, de 19 de diciembre, sobre Régimen del personal de a servicio de la Administración del Estado.

Orden ministerial de 31 de julio de 1987 por la que se adecúa la jornada de trabajo de los funcionarios docentes que imparten Enseñanzas Básicas, Medias, Artísticas y de Idiomas.

Ley 23/1988, de 28 de julio, de modificación de la Ley de Medidas para la reforma de la función pública.

Real decreto 1524/1989, de 15 de diciembre, por el que se regulan las funciones y organización del Servicio de Inspección Técnica de Educación y se desarrolla el sistema de acceso a los puestos de trabajo de la función inspectora.

Real decreto 574/1991, de 22 de abril, por el que se regula transitoriamente el ingreso en los cuerpos de funcionarios docentes a que se refiere la LOGSE.

Real decreto 1701/1991, de 29 de noviembre, por el que se establecen especialidades del Cuerpo de Profesores de Enseñanza Secundaria, se adscriben a ellas los Profesores correspondientes de dicho Cuerpo y se determinan las áreas y materias que deberá impartir el profesorado respectivo.

Real decreto 294/1992, de 27 de marzo, por el que se regula la creación y funcionamiento de los CEPs.

Real decreto 850/1993, de 4 de junio, por el que se regula el ingreso y la adquisición de especialidades en los cuerpos de funcionarios docentes a que se refiere la LOGSE

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89

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